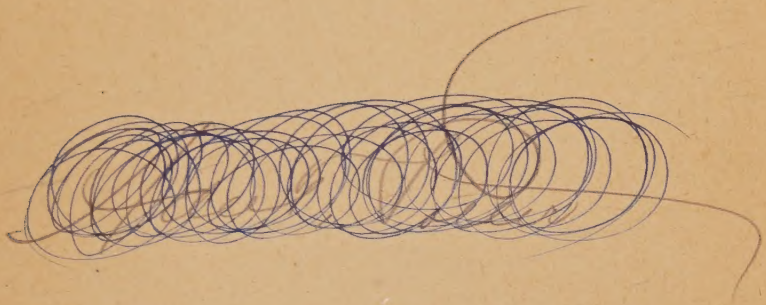
The Grammar of Present Day English

Holliday



The Grammar of Present Day English

By CARL HOLLIDAY

Dean and Professor of English, Toledo University

Author of

"The Wit and Humor of Colonial Days," "A History of Southern Literature," "The Cavalier Poets in English Fiction from the Fifth to the Twentieth Century."

Publishers
LAIRD & LEE, Inc.
Chicago

Copyright, 1919
by
LAIRD & LEE, Inc.

CONTENTS

PART I

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

CHAPTER PAGE

I. What Is Grammar 9
II. The Thought Expressed, or the Sentence... 13
I. *The Sentence and the Phrase*..... 13
II. *The Clause* 16
III. The Parts of Speech..... 19

PART II

THE COMPOSITION OF THE SENTENCE

I. The Kinds of Sentences..... 27
I. *According to Meaning or Manner*.... 27
II. *According to Form*..... 29
II. Modifiers and Completing Words (Complements) 33
III. The Kinds of Phrases and Clauses..... 38
I. *Phrases according to Form*..... 38
II. *Phrases according to Use*..... 39
III. *Clauses according to Use*..... 41
IV. Independent Elements 44
V. Analysis 48

PART III

THE FORMS AND CORRECT USES OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH

I. The Noun 50
I. *The Formation of Nouns*..... 50

II. *Substitutes for Nouns* 52
III. *The Kinds of Nouns* 53
IV. *Gender* 55
V. *Number in Nouns* 58
VI. *Case* 64
VII. *Person* 68
VIII. *Use or Construction* 69
IX. *Parsing* 73
II. Pronouns 75
I. *Personal Pronouns* 75
II. *Relative Pronouns* 86
III. *Interrogative Pronouns* 93
IV. *Demonstrative Pronouns* 94
V. *Indefinite Pronouns* 95
VI. *Parsing* 96
III. The Adjective 98
IV. The Articles 104
V. The Verb 107
I. *Kinds according to Meaning* 107
II. *Kinds according to Form* 111
III. *Kinds according to Use* 115
IV. *Number and Person in Verbs* 116
V. *Tense* 122
VI. *Voice* 128
VII. *Mood or Mode* 130
VI. Infinitives and Participles 134
VII. Conjugation and Parsing of Verbs 139
VIII. Adverbs 144
IX. Prepositions 148
X. Conjunctions 151
Index 155

PREFACE

This is not a book on composition, nor is it an attempted mixture of grammar and composition. It is a brief text containing what the author believes to be all the essentials of the grammar of present day English. It is intended not for children too immature to grasp the simpler principles of language, but for students of the seventh and eighth grades—probably the earliest and the proper place for the study of grammatical theories and usages.

For some years there has been a tendency in American schools to ignore the investigation of the principles of grammar, and to place all the emphasis upon composition. But this is no longer deemed wise; for there is certainly a great difference in value between a mechanic who merely can do things, and a technical expert who not only can do, but knows *why* he does thus and so. Composition is undoubtedly of extremely great value; but "sentence-building can never be a substitute for solid grammar." As Mary H. Leonard has declared in her *Grammar and Its Reasons,* "Language lessons have come into the schools to stay, and their value is unchallenged. Yet grammar will not again be displaced in the school curriculum. It holds a central position in formal language study, and with all its limitations it is able in its own way to give elements of linguistic training that can be arrived at by no other means."

"Sir," said Dr. Samuel Johnson, "the English language has no grammar at all." And a century later the distinguished American scholar, Richard Grant White, declared that "there is no such thing as grammar in the English language." Doubtless the matter is not so bad as that; but the fact remains that our language has less grammar than the language of any other civilized race, and is becoming more nearly grammarless every day. Yet, for nearly three hundred years instructors in English have been teaching a number of ideas, principles, and forms that either never were in English grammar, or have been so long extinct that there is no reason for their present study, and all this to the confusion and weariness of young students, simply because such ideas, principles, and forms happen to be in *Latin* grammar. "The duty of the grammarian is not to invent or create, but to state and classify the facts as he finds them."

To those instructors of Latin and other foreign tongues who may complain that their students do not know enough grammar, we may simply reply that we are teaching English grammar, not for the purpose of enabling boys and girls to understand Latin syntax, but to help them understand the conventional or correct forms of expressing thought in the English of today. When the time comes for the boy to learn Latin, Greek, or any other language, let the instructor in those languages then teach his Latin, Greek, or other foreign syntax with all its complications and peculiarities. Fortunately, "we are freeing ourselves from the tyranny of Latin models and are substituting a grammar which deals simply with the vital facts of the English tongue." The one purpose of this book is to aid the student in understanding and using the conventional or correct forms, structures, and terms of English *as it now is.*

In order that the student may see that the study of grammar is a thing connected with the actual work-a-day world, he is referred repeatedly throughout this study to newspapers, magazines, and books for specimens of grammatical forms and usages explained in these pages.

In several instances the author has used suggestions in the matter of titles and definitions offered by the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature.

CARL HOLLIDAY.

University of Toledo,
Toledo, Ohio

The Grammar of Present Day English

PART I

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

CHAPTER I

WHAT IS GRAMMAR?

We all have thoughts, and we try to express them in combinations of words. In combining these words there are certain conventional ways which are considered correct, and all other ways are considered at least odd, if not positively incorrect. The study of these combinations in any language is known as Grammar. In other words: **Grammar is that branch of human knowledge which deals with the combination and agreement of words in expressing thought.**

Some languages, such as Greek, Latin, German, and Russian, have numerous ways of showing the relations of words in expressing thought, such as attaching additional letters after or before the

original word; and such languages have a great deal of grammar. These languages are called **Synthetic or Highly Inflected** languages. But the English language very seldom adds such endings or prefixes, but depends largely upon such words as *in, at,* and *to* and such auxiliary or helping words as *shall, would, could,* to express the relations, and is therefore called an **Analytic** or **Non-Inflectional** language. The highly inflected tongues are called synthetic because they build many different words or forms from one or the same word *(syn)* by adding extra letters, and thus show many different relations of that word to other words. A non-inflected language is called analytic because it is loosely put together (*lyo,* to loosen) with simple words like *at, in, should,* and *shall,* instead of with changes or inflections of the important words. Of course, a non-inflected language has far less grammar than a language with many different endings for its words.

There have been a number of writers who have declared that English is almost grammarless. Samuel Johnson, when asked about it, said in his usual decisive manner: "Sir, the English language has no grammar at all." This is not true, but the fact is that our language has probably less grammar than any other language and is becoming more nearly grammarless every day. A thousand years ago our forefathers, speaking Old English or Anglo-Saxon, added *a* or *u* or *as* or *an*

to the name of an object to indicate more than one; today we simply add *s,* or *es,* or sometimes nothing at all, as in *fish* and *deer.* In the Latin, when a girl was represented as owning something the Romans added *ae* to the word for girl, as *puellae;* if something was done by her the form *puella* was used. In our language we show such possession by simply adding *'s,* and we indicate that something is done by the girl by simply putting the word *by* in front of the word *girl* and making no change whatever in the word. Again, if the Romans wished to indicate future time they usually put an ending on the word of action, as *amabit,* "he will love," while English-speaking people simply put the word *will* or *shall* in front of the word of action.

Thus, the Roman boy and girl had to remember a great many endings to attach to almost every word, if they hoped to speak correctly; while we have almost no endings whatever to remember. And every year our English tongue grows more simple in its ways of combining words; for there is a tendency in all languages, under the pressure of daily use, to rid themselves of all unnecessary endings, word changes and combinations. Thus, we do not have to memorize a great number of inflections, but simply look for the use of the words and combinations of words and their position in the sentence, and thus we gain the meaning of the thought. This makes

English one of the easiest languages in the matter of structure, and doubtless will sometime make it a universal language.

There are still, however, certain conventional ways of joining words, and certain forms of words to be used in certain places. It is for this purpose that we make this short study of English grammar: to know how and why we use certain conventional forms and combination of words in expressing our thoughts in English. Of course, the world will not turn topsy-turvy if we do not use these conventionally correct forms, just as the world will not turn topsy-turvy if we eat our pie with our knife. Still, it is considered better taste, more refined, more correct if we eat the pie with a fork, and talk and write our language in the way generally agreed upon as the best.

CHAPTER II

THE THOUGHT EXPRESSED, OR THE SENTENCE

I

THE SENTENCE AND THE PHRASE

When we combine words so that other people can understand us, we are expressing a thought, and this expression of a thought, whether written or spoken, is called a **Sentence.** Thus we may define a Sentence as a **complete thought expressed in words.** Sometimes we may give other people an idea or a mental picture by saying a single word or a small group of words that does not express a complete thought. Thus, we may say, "On the house," which gives a mental picture or idea but not an entire thought. **An idea expressed in a short group of words is known as a Phrase,** and the phrase is therefore different from a sentence, which conveys an entire thought.

To make sure that you understand this difference, state which of the following are phrases, and which are sentences:

In the house. The man is in the house. Running down the road. The man in the moon. He

ran down the road. Speaking of school. Away over the hills. He wandered over the hills. Having hit the ball.

When you think, you are compelled to have two parts to your thought: (1) the thing you are thinking about, and (2) what you are thinking about it. Naturally, when you express that thought in a sentence, there must be the same two parts to the sentence: (1) the name of the thing you are speaking about, and (2) what you may say about it. Thus, in the sentence, "The boy was glad," the boy is what you are talking about, and "was glad" is what you say about him. Now, the part of a sentence spoken about is called the **Subject,** and the part of a sentence telling about the subject is called the **Predicate.** In other words, **that part of a sentence which names that about which an assertion is made is called the Subject,** and **that part of a sentence which asserts is called the Predicate.** Either part may contain several words, but if all the modifying and helping words of a complete subject are stripped away there is finally left what is called the **simple subject,** generally one word.

Almost invariably the subject is the name of some object or represents some idea; but sometimes it simply serves to open a sentence, as in the expressions: "It is raining," and "It is thundering." Such a subject, since it stands for no person or thing, is often called an **impersonal sub-**

ject. Again, the word *it* may be used at the beginning of a sentence to stand for a group of words appearing later in the sentence, as in the following expression: "It is easy *to swim.*" Here the word *it* stands for the phrase *to swim.* When the word *it* is used in this manner it is commonly called an **Expletive.**

You will notice that, although a sentence always possesses a subject and a predicate, a phrase cannot have, because it simply expresses a mental picture or idea, without possessing any asserting part.

Now, in order to make sure that you understand the difference between a subject and a predicate, point out each of them in the following sentences. You should remember that the subject does not always come at the beginning of the sentence.

Grant was a general. There is no man in the moon. English grammar helps you to understand your language. Down went the ship. Up in the sky the clouds float slowly. Where is he gone? (He is gone where?) When did he fall? (He did fall when?) I will go when you do. Up went the kite. Who hurt this boy? To some men riches come quickly.

Point out the subjects and the predicates in any ten sentences from a newspaper, magazine, or book.

II

THE CLAUSE

Sometimes a group of words may have its own subject and predicate, and yet be simply a part of a sentence. Thus, in the sentence, "The man who builds houses is a carpenter," we have within the sentence a group of words, "who builds houses," with its own subject "who" and its own predicate "builds houses." Such a group of words is called a **Clause.** We may say, therefore, that **a portion of a sentence having its own subject and predicate is known as a Clause.**

Now, such clauses may express the main part of a thought; as in "He hit the bird, which flew away," in which "He hit the bird" is the main section of the sentence. **A clause expressing the most important part of the thought in the sentence is known as the Main or Independent Clause.** Sometimes another clause in the sentence acts simply like one word to describe or limit or modify some other clause or word, and is, therefore, not so important as the independent clause. Thus, in the sentence, "The man who is small is John," the clause "who is small" acts like one word simply describing man, and the sentence might be written: "The *small* man is John." Such a clause is said to be **Subordinate** or **Dependent.** Therefore, **a clause used as a subordinate part of**

a sentence is known as a Subordinate or Dependent clause.

In the following sentences indicate the main clauses and the subordinate clauses:

The evil that men do lives after them. The city where he dwells is New York. Blessed is he that considereth the poor. I believe that he will come. I said that he was a good student. God helps those who help themselves. Just as I entered, the bell rang. I can go when he returns. He is what I call a great man. People who live in glass houses should not throw stones.

My heart leaps up when I behold
A rainbow in the sky.

At this point we may as well learn what marks of punctuation to use with clauses and phrases, and thus gain the habit of punctuating them correctly whenever we write them. If a clause is very closely related to some word or some other part of the sentence no punctuation is necessary; thus, in the sentence, "The man who speaks good English is to be commended," the connection is too close to allow punctuation. In such a sentence, however, as "I gave the starving man food, which he ate eagerly," the last clause is so loosely attached that the sentence might read: "I gave the starving man food and he ate it eagerly." In using such a loosely attached clause the comma should be inserted. Again, in the following sentences: "Water, which is made of hydrogen and

oxygen, is a liquid," and "Water that is dirty is unfit for use," the first contains a clause which is simply thrust into the sentence as an extra group of words which might have been omitted, and such excess or extra words should be enclosed with commas; while in the second sentence the clause, "that is dirty," must be there to describe this certain kind of water, and is, therefore, so closely related to the word "water" that no punctuation is necessary.

Likewise, in punctuating phrases, if the phrase seems closely related to some word or part of the sentence, use no comma; thus, "He went slowly *into the house.*" But if the phrase seems to be simply thrust into the sentence as extra or excess words, use commas; as, "The sum, *in round numbers,* is one hundred dollars."

Hard and fast rules for punctuating phrases and clauses cannot be made; you must learn to use your judgment in the matter.

Experiment with the following examples:

The man who is not lazy generally succeeds. Animals which include many kinds of living things are generally able to move about. Shakespeare who lived in Elizabeth's time was the greatest of playwrights. Punctuation which is used in modern languages was unknown to the ancients. This girl learns only what she likes.

CHAPTER III

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

When the Roman boy looked at a Latin word, or more especially at its closing letters, he could generally tell by its appearance whether it was the name of something or whether it expressed action, and, if the first, what was its relationship to some other word, or, if the second, what time the action occurred. Thus when he saw the word *Romanorum* he knew that the word came from *Romanus,* meaning Roman, that the *orum* showed that it meant possession and more than one Roman. Therefore it meant to him "of the Romans." When he saw *amabit* he had to remember that the original word was *amare,* meaning "to love," and that the *abit* added to the main part of the word meant future time. Therefore, the word meant to him, "he will love."

To us English-speaking people this telling by the looks of a word what it is appears to be of no particular advantage, for consider how many possible endings to a word the Roman boy had to learn before he could accurately understand his language. When we look at an English word we do not examine it to see how it appears, or

how it ends, but to see *what it does in expressing the thought, what its work is.* Sometimes one word may be used to do several kinds of work in expressing our thoughts. Thus, in the sentence, "The iron is hot," we use "iron" as the name of a thing. In the sentence, "The woman will iron the clothes," we use "iron" to express action. In the sentence, "The iron pot is there," we use "iron" to describe some quality of a thing. Thus each word has a particular kind of duty to perform, and we give the word a name according to its use.

The kind of work that a word does in expressing a thought shows us what **part of speech** it is. In short, **words are classified according to their use, and the various classes are called Parts of Speech.**

Probably the part of speech met with most often in your reading is the name of a thing or person, such as house, gas, soul, religion, Mary, Ohio. **A word that is the name of a thing or person is known as a Noun.**

Oftentimes we do not wish to repeat the same noun over and over in a thought or group of thoughts, and we use a substitute for it. Thus, we should not wish to say, "John hung John's hat and Mary's coat on Mary's rack in Mary's house, but John's hat and Mary's coat fell off." Instead, we prefer to say, "John hung his hat and Mary's coat on her rack in her house; but

they fell off." The word "his" stands for "John's," the word "her" stands for "Mary's," and "they" stands for "hat" and "coat." **A word that stands for a noun is known as a Pronoun.**

Sometimes a noun has a word in front of it, not to tell some quality or quantity of it, but simply to set it aside from a general class of things—to make it a little more specific or to draw a little more attention to it in particular. Thus, we may say, "Iron is a metal." "*The* iron is an instrument." **There are three words used for this purpose in English: "a," "an," and "the," and they are known as Articles.**

Very often we wish to add some word to a noun to describe the thing it names or to tell the amount or quantity of the thing or to indicate which one of several things is meant. Thus, we may say, "the *strong* men," to indicate the quality of the men, or "the *many* men," to indicate the number or quantity of the men, or "*these* men," to distinguish them from some other group of men. Thus, these added words describe or limit the noun, or name. **A word used to describe or limit a noun or a pronoun is known as an Adjective.**

In making a statement about anything, we need a word that indicates what the thing is or what it is doing or how it is acting or what condition it is in. Thus, we may say, "The man *exists*," which is equivalent to saying that the man *is;*

or we may say, "The man *moves,*" which tells what he *is doing;* or we may say, "The man *is* strong," in which the word "is" helps to express his condition or state. Such words as "is" and "moves" aid in asserting some idea about the thing you have in mind. These assertive words have always been considered very important, and therefore long ago scholars called such a word *verbum,* meaning *the word,* and from this we obtain its modern name, the **Verb. A word that asserts action, being, or state of being is known as a Verb.**

In the sentence, "*To swim* is easy," the words "to swim" represent action just as a verb does; but at the same time these two words are used as the *subject of the thought,* just as a noun might be. Thus, we have a word which acts like both a verb and a noun. Again, in the sentence, "*Hunting* rabbits is a sport," the word "hunting" has some of the quality of a verb and at the same time is the subject of thought. Thus, we have another instance of a word that has the traits of both a verb and a noun. **Any word that has the nature or the traits of both verb and noun is known as an Infinitive.**

In the sentence, "The boy *whistling* passed by," the word "whistling" represents action and therefore has the quality of a *verb.* At the same time, however, it modifies or describes the noun "boy," and therefore has the quality of an *ad-*

jective. In another sentence, "The man *building* the fire was a hunter," the word "building" represents action and therefore possesses the quality of a verb, and at the same time modifies or describes the noun "man," as an adjective does. Now, such a word is known as a **participle.** We may say, then, that **any word having the nature or traits of both verb and adjective is known as a Participle.**

Infinitives and participles sometimes are classified together as **Verbals.**

We have seen how it is helpful now and then to describe or limit a noun with a word known as an *adjective.* In the same way it is sometimes helpful to describe or limit *this* adjective also. Thus, we may say "the tall man," but we may make our meaning more clear and more specific by saying "the *very* tall man." Thus, the word "very" describes or modifies the adjective "tall," just as "tall" describes or modifies the noun "man." Again, we sometimes wish to describe more closely the manner in which some action is done; as, "The man runs *fast.*" By means of the word "fast" we tell more accurately the kind of running the man is doing. Thus, the word "fast" modifies the verb "run," just as "very" modifies "tall" in the expression given above. Still again, we sometimes wish to limit or describe even more accurately and closely the manner in which an action is done, and then we add another word to

describe or modify "fast" or any other word which already describes the verb. Thus, we have a word *which modifies an adjective or a verb or some modifier of that verb.* Since many of such words are added to the *verb* they have been given the name of **Adverbs.** Therefore, **a word describing or modifying a verb or an adjective, or describing or modifying such word itself is known as an Adverb.**

In expressing a thought we often need words to aid in showing *where* action is directed. Thus, we say, "He threw *at* John." "I threw it *to* him." "I threw it *from* him." "The ball is *on* the ground." Such words as "at," "to," "from," and "on" are generally followed by a noun or pronoun or some group of words acting like a noun, and they show the relation of that noun or pronoun to some other word in the thought expressed. Thus, in the sentence, "He threw *at* John," the word "at" indicates a relation between "threw" and "John," a relation of direction; while in the sentence, "The ball is *on* the ground," the word "on" indicates the relation between "is" and "ground," a relation of location. Since such words are generally placed *before* a noun or pronoun, we use the Latin word *pre,* meaning *before,* in making their name, and we call them **Prepositions.** Therefore, **a word placed before a noun or a pronoun or a group of words acting like a noun to show its relationship to some**

other word is known as a Preposition. Sometimes the noun or the pronoun is placed some distance from the preposition; as, "What are you looking *at?*" and "Whom are you speaking *to?*" But in all such cases the noun or pronoun may be brought to a position directly after the preposition. Usually it is best to keep the preposition as close as possible to the words it is related to, so that the sense is clear.

Frequently we use words simply to *join* or *link* other words together. Such joining or linking words have almost no meaning of their own, but simply serve, like the coupling on railroad cars, to hold two or more parts together. Thus, we may say, "John and he walked," or "He walked, but John rode." In the first expression the word "and" loosely connects "John" and "he"; in the second expression the word "but" loosely connects the idea of his walking with the idea of John's riding. Such words, you will notice, do not show any clear relationship as does a preposition, but simply *connect.* **A word used merely to connect words or portions of a thought expressed is known as a Conjunction.**

There remains one other Part of Speech. Sometimes in surprise or anger or disgust or some other form of feeling we say, "Oh," or "Pshaw," or "Hurrah." Such words really are not a genuine part of the thought, but are simply sudden expressions slipping from our tongues before we

begin to express the thought we have in mind. As they are merely extra words thrown in or *interjected* during our talk, they are called **Interjections.** Thus, **a word used as an exclamation or as a sudden expression of feeling, but not being an actual part of the thought, is known as an Interjection.**

Thus we have examined all the classes of words we can use in talking or writing English or any other language. A little later we shall study the correct or conventional uses of these parts of speech in expressing thought. For the present, however, it will be sufficient for you to learn to recognize these parts of speech wherever you may see them.

Choose any five or six lines from a newspaper, a magazine, or a book, and see if you can tell what part of speech each word in the lines is.

PART II

THE COMPOSITION OF THE SENTENCE

CHAPTER I

THE KINDS OF SENTENCES

I

ACCORDING TO MEANING OR MANNER

We express our thoughts in four different states of mind, or in four different manners. Sometimes we simply desire to state a fact or give information, as in the sentence: "The woman is beautiful." Sometimes we wish to request information, and then we ask a question, as in the sentence: "Who is the beautiful woman?" Sometimes we desire that something be done, and then we give a command, as in the sentence: "Do this work next." At other times we are so surprised or moved by some feeling that we express our thoughts in an emotional or highly excited manner, as in the sentence: "Oh, there is a lion!"

Now, each of these forms of expressing a thought has been given a name. **A sentence that simply states or asserts is called a Declarative sentence. One that asks is called an Interrogative**

sentence. One that commands is called an Imperative sentence. One that asserts, asks, or commands, in the manner of an exclamation showing strong emotion, is called an Exclamatory sentence.*

Tell what kind each of the following sentences is:

John is a carpenter. How much does he receive per day? Does he work rapidly? Build me a house that will have ten rooms. Oh, that he would come quickly! Where is he going? Oh, there goes the fire engine! Come, gentle Spring! He asked how much it would cost. Kindly ask for me how much it costs.

In a newspaper, magazine or book, choose specimens of the four kinds of sentences mentioned above.

Perhaps it is not necessary to remind you that a declarative or an imperative sentence should have a period at its close. The exclamatory sentence has an exclamation mark, sometimes at its close, sometimes after some exclamatory word or interjection within the sentence. Modern writers are very cautious about using exclamation marks, as such marks give one an impression that the author is trying to arouse or frighten the reader by artificial methods; and when writers use the mark at all, they generally prefer to place it at

* Some grammarians prefer to state that exclamatory sentences are simply declarative sentences.

the close of the sentence. Thus: "Oh, there is a lion!" "O God! Save Thou Thy people."

At the close of an interrogative sentence a question mark is used. Be sure, however, that the sentence is a *direct* question *using the exact words of the speaker;* as, "Have you any money?" In the sentence, "He asked if I had any money," we have simply a declarative sentence containing what is called an *indirect* question, *not giving the exact words of the speaker,* and such a sentence has a period and not a question mark at its close.

II

ACCORDING TO FORM

Now, we have seen how sentences are classified according to their meaning or manner of expressing the thought; let us next see how they are classified according to their *form* or *structure.* Very often a thought simply expresses a single idea about some thing, and the sentence has only one subject or name of the thing talked about, and only one predicate or assertion made about the subject. Thus: "Captain John Smith was a colonist." Sometimes there may be two or three parts to the subject and two or three parts to the predicate; but still we consider all these parts as making only one subject or one predicate. Thus, in the sentence, "John and Mary ran and fell," "John" and "Mary" should be consid-

ered as one subject, while "ran" and "fell" should be considered as making one predicate. Such double or triple subjects considered as one are known as **Compound Subjects,** and such double or triple predicates considered as one are known as **Compound Predicates.** Now, **a sentence having but one subject and one predicate, or a sentence having but one thought with no minor or subordinate thoughts, is known as a Simple Sentence.**

Now and then a sentence may contain two or more complete thoughts joined with a conjunction, such as "and" or "but," or the conjunction, if not actually present, may be *supposed* to be present. Thus, in the sentence, "Jack fell down and broke his crown, and Jill came tumbling after," the first thought closes with the word "crown," while the second thought begins with the word "Jill," and the two thoughts expressed are joined with the word "and." Again, in the sentence, "Jack fell down; Jill tumbled after; Dick laughed at both," we have three thoughts expressed with the word "and" *understood* to be present between each thought. Now, **a sentence expressing two or more independent or equally important thoughts is known as a Compound Sentence.**

In writing a compound sentence, it is customary to place a comma after each thought expressed, just before the conjunction. Sometimes, if each thought or clause is rather long and the

conjunction is omitted, a semicolon is placed between each thought. Thus: "John Smith is a skilled carpenter, but he is lazy." "John Smith may be an excellent carpenter; he may be a skilled worker with wood and iron; but I know him to be a lazy man."

We sometimes use sentences containing an important thought and one or more thoughts not quite so important. In other words, such a sentence may have a main clause for the important thought, and one or more subordinate or dependent clauses for the less important thoughts. Thus, in the sentence, "This is the man who did the work," the first clause, "This is the man," is the more important thought, while the second clause, "who did the work," simply describes the man and is not so important. Again, the main or independent thought or clause may include the subordinate or less important thought or clause. Thus, in the sentence, "He who is a worker generally succeeds," the main clause or thought includes the whole sentence, while the less important thought or subordinate clause is "who is a worker," and is included within the main clause. It is clear, however, that even if one clause includes the entire sentence, the other, or subordinate, clause is present. Now, **a sentence having a main or principal clause or thought and one or more subordinate thoughts or clauses is known as a Complex Sentence.**

Sometimes not all of the subordinate clause is expressed. Thus, in the sentence, "Please pass the bread," the entire sentence ought to be "If it please you, pass the bread." When a portion of a sentence is omitted, such a sentence is known as an **Elliptical Sentence.**

Now let us examine several sentences to see whether they are simple, complex or compound:

This is the home of the boy. The man who is just is not always liked. Grant was victorious, but Lee was honored. Great and marvelous are these works. The works that I have mentioned are great and marvelous. Steam engines and telephones are inventions of modern days. The fruit that is ripest falls first. The lightning flashed, the thunder roared, and the heavens were in commotion.

Early to bed and early to rise
Make a man healthy, wealthy, and wise.

Blow, blow, thou winter wind!
Thou art not so unkind
As man's ingratitude.

Meagre were his looks,
Sharp misery had worn him to the bones.

State what kinds of sentences according to meaning or manner of expression (declarative, interrogative, etc.) and according to form (simple, complex, compound) the sentences in any paragraph from a newspaper, magazine, or book are.

CHAPTER II

MODIFIERS AND COMPLETING WORDS (COMPLEMENTS)

We have seen that every complete sentence must have a subject and a predicate. The subject, when stripped of all descriptive or other helping words, is found to be simply a noun or a pronoun or a group of words acting as a noun. Similarly, when the predicate is stripped of all descriptive and other helpful words, it is found to be simply a verb. Now, all these words that describe or limit the simple subject or the verb are called **Modifiers**, and we have seen that they must be adjectives or articles if they modify or limit a noun or a pronoun, and must be adverbs if they modify a verb. Thus, in the sentence, "The white man works hard," the words "the," "white," and "hard" are modifiers, "the" being an article, "white" being an adjective modifying "man," and "hard" being an adverb modifying the verb "works." Often, however, there are added to the verb words that do not modify it, but simply help it to make the complete predicate. Thus, in the sentence, "He is a man," "man" does not modify or describe the verb "is," but is added to the verb

simply to help it in making the complete predicate, "is a man." Again, in the sentence, "He hit the dog," the word "dog" is added simply to help complete the predicate and thus complete the meaning of the sentence. Once more, in the sentence, "They call him king," both of the words "him" and "king" help the verb in completing the predicate and making the sentence give complete sense. Such completing words added to the verb, but not modifying the verb, are called **Complements.** Sometimes the verb needs no help in making a complete predicate and complete sense, as in the sentence, "The bird flies." Such a verb is called a **Verb of Complete Predication.** If, however, the verb must have with it another word before a complete predicate can be made; as, "He hit the dog," such a verb is called a **Verb of Incomplete Predication.** And remember, the word that does this completing is called a **Complement.** In short, **a completing word added to a verb of incomplete predication to make the predicate and the full meaning of the sentence, is called a Complement.**

Of course, care must be taken to distinguish between a complement and a modifier. The complement does not describe or limit or modify; it simply helps to complete the predicate and the meaning. A modifier always describes or limits some other word.

In the following sentences see if you can tell

which are complements and which are modifiers:

Who shot the bird? Did you study Latin? He works hard. Tonight no moon I see. George Washington was brave. You think him a great man, but he is cowardly. They jumped themselves out of breath. They call him king. He called again. The soldiers marched forth. He was fourth. The Romans were a strong people. The boy recited yesterday.

In the sentence, "He is a man," the complement "man" not only helps to complete the predicate, but also describes and refers to the subject "he." It tells what "he" is, and explains that "he" is equal to or equivalent to "a man." We might indeed write the sentence thus: "He = man." Again, in the sentence, "He is good," the word "good" not only completes the predicate, but refers back to the subject and states an attribute or quality of that subject. This kind of complement is known as an **Attribute Complement**, or **Predicate Complement.** In brief, then, **a complement that describes or is equivalent to the subject is called an Attribute or Predicate Complement.**

In the sentence, "He hit the dog," the complement "dog" not only aids the verb "hit" in completing the predicate and the meaning, but indicates what the action affected. This kind of complement is known as an **Object Complement** or **Direct Object.** In other words, **a complement that indicates what or whom the action affects is**

known as an Object Complement or Direct Object.

Again, in the sentence, "They call him king," there are two kinds of complements. The word "him" indicates whom the action of calling affects, and belongs, therefore, to the kind just described, the object complement or direct object. But what about the word "king"? This word not only helps the verb in making a complete predicate, but also names an attribute or office of the person meant by the word "him." Again, in the sentence, "The name 'king' made him proud," the word "proud" helps the verb "made" in completing the predicate, and also tells a quality of the person meant by "him." This third kind of complement is known as an **Objective Complement.** Therefore, **a complement that denotes the effect of action on the direct object is called an Objective Complement.**

Now, that these three kinds of complements may be perfectly clear in your mind, state what kind each one is in the sentences given in the group on page 35.

In any newspaper, magazine, or book look for complements and state what kind they are.

Besides the direct object mentioned above, there are two other kinds of objects sometimes used in sentences: the **Indirect Object** and the **Object of a Preposition.** Now, in the sentence, "I gave her money," the word "money" is the direct object because it is the thing directly affected by the

action; in other words, the money changed hands because of the giving. But the word "her" represents an object which is less closely related to the verb, and indeed the word "to" is understood or supposed to be between this word "her" and the verb "gave." Moreover, the sentence could make sense without this word "her," but could not without the word "money." Therefore, we consider this word "her" *indirectly* affected by the action in the verb, and we call it an **Indirect Object.** We may say, then, that **a word naming an object indirectly affected by the action in the verb is known as an Indirect Object.** Such an object is generally found after words of giving, granting, paying, etc.

In the sentence, "He went to town," we have the preposition "to" followed by a noun. Again, in the sentence, "I fought for him," we have the preposition "for" followed by the pronoun "him." A noun or a pronoun used with a preposition is called the **Object of a Preposition,** and this object and its preposition together are known as a **Prepositional Phrase.**

In the following sentences point out the indirect objects and the objects of prepositions:

He paid the men their money. He went to town. He promised me a gift. He did the people much wrong. He lives at the top of the hill. Owe no man anything. Give every man thy ear, but few thy voice. I spoke to her. I spoke of him.

CHAPTER III

THE KINDS OF PHRASES AND CLAUSES

I

PHRASES ACCORDING TO FORM

We have seen that a phrase is a group of words having neither subject nor predicate and that a clause is a group of words having subject and predicate, and yet being but a part of a sentence. These phrases and clauses have various forms and various uses, and if these forms and uses are understood clearly, we may give more effectiveness and variety to our way of talking and writing. Sometimes a phrase may consist of several verbs, as "has been done," and "shall be declared," and such a phrase is known as a **Verb Phrase.** Now and then a word not a verb may be thrust into this verb phrase, as "shall *not* be spoken"; but this should not be confusing, for the verb phrase is still "shall be spoken." Care should of course be taken not to confuse a verb phrase with an attribute complement. The verb phrase, remember, is made up entirely of *verbs;* but the attribute complement must contain a noun or a

pronoun or an adjective. Thus, in the sentence, "His ankle is sprained," the word "sprained" is simply an adjective telling an attribute of the ankle and is therefore an attribute complement; but in the sentence, "His ankle was sprained in the race," the words "was sprained" are both verbs and therefore form a verb phrase.

Similarly in such a sentence as "He was told *to go,*" the last two words form an *infinitive phrase,* and in the sentence, "Having done his work, he left," the words "having done" form a *participle phrase.*

Sometimes a phrase may open with a preposition; as in the sentence, "He went *to town,*" and this is naturally called a *prepositional phrase.*

Now in the following sentences state what kind of phrases (according to their form) you find:

He spoke to me. Having spoken to me, he went away. He should have gone. He spoke of having gone. To go is your duty. He will be gone when you arrive. He was arrested for stealing. I heard of his coming. I ordered him to speak.

II

PHRASES ACCORDING TO USE

Almost any phrase may act just like one word as a part of speech: as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. Thus, in the sentence, "The man went to town," the phrase "to town" acts as an adverb

modifying the word "went" and may therefore be called an **Adverbial Phrase.** In the sentence, "The path by the river is muddy," the phrase "by the river" modifies or describes the noun "path" and is therefore used as an adjective. Hence, it may be called an **Adjective Phrase.** Again, in the sentence, "The man, whistling gaily, seemed very happy," the participle phrase "whistling gaily" is used to describe the noun "man," and is therefore used as an **Adjective Phrase.** Sometimes a phrase may act exactly like a noun, as in the sentence, "Climbing mountains is healthful exercise." The phrase "climbing mountains" is what is spoken about in the sentence, and is therefore used as a subject, just as a noun might be. Such a phrase may be called a **Noun or Substantive Phrase.** Again, in the sentence, "*Over the fence* is out," the prepositional phrase is the subject and is a **Noun or Substantive Phrase.** In such a sentence as, "That is *out of bounds,*" the last three words form an attribute complement to help the word "is" complete the predicate, just as, the word "bad" does in the sentence, "That is *bad.*" Thus it is plain that a phrase may act as an **Attribute Complement.** Again, in the sentence, "He ordered the house to be burned," the phrase "the house to be burned" is what he *ordered* and is therefore used as the **Direct Object** or **Object Complement.** Finally, in the sentence, "They ran themselves out of

breath," the phrase "out of breath" helps to complete the predicate and at the same time states an attribute of the objects meant by the word "themselves." This phrase is used, therefore, as an **Objective Complement.** In all these examples of phrases as complements they act like either **nouns** or **adjectives.**

Thus, according to how it is *constructed,* its *forms,* a phrase may be a **verb phrase,** an **infinitive phrase,** a **participle phrase,** or a **prepositional phrase;** while according to its use in the sentence it may be a **noun** or **substantive phrase,** an **adjective phrase,** or an **adverbial phrase.**

Now, point out the phrases in the following sentences and state the kinds according to form and according to use:

A man should learn to control himself. Crossing the ocean generally makes people ill. Out of sight is out of mind. Giving to the poor is called charity. He seems to be in good health. I did not enjoy going on the train. The price of food is rising. The letter, having been written, was sent at once. To be prepared is a virtue of the wise. Having learned his lesson he went home.

III

CLAUSES ACCORDING TO USE

In exactly the same way clauses may have different uses. Thus, in the sentence, "Whoever did it should be praised," the clause "whoever did

it'' is the subject and may therefore be called a **Noun** or **Substantive Clause.** Again, in the sentence, ''He is what he is,'' the clause ''what he is'' is the complement, helping the verb ''is'' to complete the predicate. Thus, again we have a **Substantive** or **Noun Clause,** used this time as an **Attribute Complement.** In the sentence, ''He ordered that the house should be burned,'' the clause, ''that the house should be burned,'' is the **Object Complement** or the **Direct Object** of the verb ''ordered,'' and is thus again a substantive or noun clause. Once more, in the sentence, ''He made himself what he is,'' the clause ''what he is'' is used as the **Objective Complement,** just as in the sentence, ''They call him king,'' the word ''king'' is used as an objective complement. Therefore, again, the clause ''what he is'' is a substantive or noun clause, used this time as an **Objective Complement.**

Often a clause is used to describe a noun or a pronoun, as in the sentence, ''The man who works generally succeeds.'' The clause ''who works'' modifies or describes the noun ''man,'' and is therefore used like an adjective, and may be called an **Adjective Clause.** Frequently, also, a clause may act as a single word, limiting or modifying the meaning of a verb. Thus, in the sentence, ''I go when he comes,'' the clause ''when he comes'' modifies or limits the word ''go,'' and is as much an adverb as is the word ''now'' in the sentence,

"I go *now*." Such a clause is naturally called an **Adverbial Clause.**

Thus, we have seen that a clause or a phrase may act exactly like a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

In the following sentences see whether you can tell the use of each clause:

He asked who I was. Do you know where he lives? I doubt whether I can go. When he returns I shall be ready. The man of whom you spoke is his brother. It was his belief that every man should attend to his own work. This is what I believe. Ask if you may go. The village all declared how much he knew. What a man learns may be valuable in later years. "I am going a-milking, sir," she said. I will stay where you wish me to stay. That he is a brave man cannot be doubted.

State the kinds of clauses and phrases and their uses that you have found in any paragraph from a newspaper, magazine, or book.

CHAPTER IV

INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS

We have seen that in a moment of surprise or emotion we may thrust into our talk some almost meaningless word, such as Oh, Ah, Eh, or Pshaw, and that such words are called interjections or exclamations, and really have no relation to the rest of the sentence. Because such a word is so independent or so much alone in the sentence, it has been placed under the general class of **Independent Elements.** Therefore, **a word or a group of words attached to a sentence, but not forming a grammatical part of the sentence, is called an Independent Element.**

There are a few other kinds of words coming under this general class of independent elements. When, for instance, we use a word addressing or calling some one, as in the sentence, "*John,* come here," and "You are, *sir,* very much mistaken," this extra or excess word, such as "John" or "sir," thrust into the sentence, is called a **Vocative,** from the Latin word meaning "to call."

You should notice that, if it comes at the opening of the sentence, this vocative should have a comma after it, as in the use of the word "John"

in the sentence quoted above. If it is within the sentence, the vocative should have commas on both sides, as in the use of "sir" in the sentence given above. These commas show that the word is cut off from other words in the sentence.

In our conversation and writing we sometimes wish to thrust in little side remarks, words or phrases or clauses, that really have no direct relation to the sentence, but perhaps add to the clearness of the meaning. Thus, in the sentence, "The sum, *to put it in round numbers,* is one hundred dollars," and, "Bashfulness is, *as it were,* a kind of egotism," the italicised words are really not at all essential to the sentence. Hence, **a word or a group of words attached to a sentence as a side remark is known as a Parenthetical Element.** These parenthetical elements may be punctuated in various ways. If not very much disconnected in thought from the rest of the sentence, the parenthetical expression may have commas on both sides; but, if very much disconnected or unrelated, it may have dashes on both sides or may be enclosed within parentheses.

It is sometimes helpful to state an idea twice in slightly different language, or to set a name next to another name as an extra explanation, for this may make the meaning more clear. Thus, in the sentence, "A carpenter, a builder of houses, is a useful worker," the words "a builder of houses" are an explanation of the word "carpenter" and

mean the same thing. Again, in the sentence, "He has a theory *that the earth is flat,*" the italicised words are simply the theory. Once more, in the sentence, "John, the student, is bright," "John" and "the student" are the same. **Placing words meaning the same thing next to each other in the manner of an explanation is known as Apposition, and a word or group of words set next to another word and denoting the same person or thing is called an Appositive** (Latin, "set next to").

When an appositive is an extra or excess word thrust into the sentence, it should have commas on both sides, to show its lack of relation to other words in the sentence. Sometimes an appositive is so closely connected in thought with the word it explains that no commas are needed; as in the sentence: "My sister Elizabeth is ill."

There is still one other kind of independent element. In early English and sometimes in modern poetry we find such an expression as, "Thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me." Either the words "Thy rod and thy staff" or the word "they" might be omitted; both certainly are not necessary. **The placing of unnecessary nouns in front of a pronoun to explain this pronoun is known as Pleonasm.**

Once more, it should be noticed that since the pleonastic elements are not necessary to the sen-

tence, such elements should be separated by commas from the remainder of the sentence.

Thus we have seen that there may be such independent elements in a sentence as exclamations or interjections, vocatives, parenthetical expressions, appositives, and pleonasm.

In the following sentences distinguish between the independent elements:

Sir, I would rather be right than be president. Alas! poor man! what suffering was his. The smith, a mighty man is he. Let there be no strife, I beg of you, between you two. Roll on, thou dark and deep blue ocean, roll! She was not, to the best of my recollection, at this place. Ba, ba, black sheep, have you any wool? Why, this is indeed a strange thing! Thou, too, sail on, O ship of state! He did not, at all events, lose his self-respect. There is, properly speaking, no such thing as luck. My boy, hear the counsel of your elders.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS

It is oftentimes a real help toward understanding a sentence to take it apart and see how it is constructed. This process of taking a sentence apart to show its structure is known as **Analysis**, and when we do this we are said to **Analyze the Sentence.**

In previous sections we have seen all the parts that a sentence may have, such as subject, predicate, complements, modifiers, and independent elements. In analyzing, we tell the following facts about a sentence:

The kind of sentence according to *meaning* or *use* (declarative, interrogative, etc.)

The kind of sentence according to *form* (simple, complex, compound).

The complete subject.

The predicate.

The simple subject.

The verb.

The complements and their kinds.

The modifiers (whether word, phrase, or clause,) and what they modify.

The independent elements.

Analyze the following sentences:

Up above the clouds went the great balloon. The soldier sat down among the children and told them many stories. He may be a boy of happy disposition; he may be liked by his schoolmates; but the teachers report him as being lazy. When I look upon the tombs of the great every emotion of envy dies in me.

At the doorway of his wigwam
Sat the ancient Arrow-maker,
In the land of the Dacotahs,
Making arrow heads of jasper.

Forth into the forest straightway
All alone walked Hiawatha
Proudly, with his bows and arrows.

Shut in from all the world without,
We sat the clean-winged hearth about,
Content to let the north wind roar
In baffled rage at pane and door.

Analyze ten sentences found in a newspaper, magazine or book.

PART III

THE FORMS AND CORRECT USES OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH

CHAPTER I

THE NOUN

I

THE FORMATION OF NOUNS

We have seen that a noun is the name of a person or thing. The English language has a vast number of nouns and is constantly making new ones to serve as names for inventions, discoveries, new foods, new ideas, etc. Some words have been in use among our English or Anglo-Saxon forefathers so long that we can scarcely discover a time when they were not in use. Other words have frequently been made from these older ones, and in doing so our ancestors have followed three methods for constructing not only new nouns but new specimens of almost every other part of speech. Sometimes a slight change has been made in the original word, as in the changing of the word "man" into "men," "he" to "him," etc. This manner of change is called **Inflection.** There-

fore, **a change in the form of a word to show a slight change in the meaning is known as Inflection.**

Again, we may attach to the beginning or the end of an old word some syllable that may give an entirely new meaning. Thus, by placing a prefix "un" in front of "truth" we have "untruth," the exact opposite of the original word. Or by placing a suffix like "ness" at the end of "sick" we have "sickness." Sometimes, too, we may make an entirely different word by changing some vowel in an older word, as "heat" from "hot" and "pride" from "proud." This method of forming a new word by adding a prefix or a suffix or by changing a vowel in an older word is known as **Derivation,** and the original word from which the new one is formed by derivation or inflection is known as the **Root-word.** You should notice that by derivation an entirely new word is formed, while by inflection only a slight change in the meaning of the word is made.

Lastly, English-speaking people often combine two or three words and thus make a new one, as in "blackboard," "grandfather," "son-in-law," etc. Such words are called **Compound Words,** and the process of forming a new word by combining two or more other words is known as **Composition.**

Often these compound words have a hyphen between the various older words of which they are made; but sometimes, as the compound word

grows older, the hyphen is dropped. There is no rule for retaining or dropping this hyphen; when you are in doubt about it consult the dictionary.

In any paragraph from a magazine, newspaper, or book choose several specimens of inflection, derivation, and composition.

II

SUBSTITUTES FOR NOUNS

You should remember that often English-speaking people use some other part of speech for a noun. When our language was much younger, this using of one part of speech for another was much more common than it is today. For example, Shakespeare uses the conjunction "but" as both a verb and a noun in the expression, "But me no buts." Even today we now and then hear such substitutions. Thus, we commonly use a pronoun in place of a noun, as in the sentence, "I hurt *him*"; an adjective in place of a noun, as in the sentence, "He does his *best*"; an adverb in place of a noun, as in the sentence, "*Then* is not the time; *now* is better"; an infinitive as a noun, as in the sentence, "*To swim* is an exercise"; a phrase as a noun, as in the sentence, "*Over the fence* is out"; and a clause as a noun, as in the sentence, "*That he is a good man* is not doubted." The use of these substitutes undoubtedly gives a pleasant variety to one's lan-

guage, and should be practiced in both speaking and writing.

III

THE KINDS OF NOUNS

If you will examine the pages of a newspaper, magazine, or book, you will find that several of the nouns begin with a capital letter. You will find, further, that each of these nouns beginning with a capital is the name of a *particular* person, place, thing, etc., and not the name of any one from an entire general class of persons, places, or things. In the sentence, "This boy's name is John," the word "boy" applies to any boy, the word "name" might mean any name, but the word "John" must be the name of some *particular person.* Now, **the name of a particular person or thing to distinguish that person or thing from all others is known as a Proper Noun. Any name that may be applied to all persons or objects of a class is known as a Common Noun.** And, remember, a proper noun always opens with a capital letter.

Sometimes we wish to consider a number of individuals together as one body, as "jury," "herd," "army," etc. Since we consider such a noun as the name of a collection, we call it a **Collective Noun**; in other words, **the name of a number of individuals considered as one body or as a collection is known as a Collective Noun.**

We are sometimes in doubt as to what number of the pronoun to use with a collective noun; whether we shall say "it" or "they" when we speak of a *jury,* for instance. This is easily settled, however. When we consider the jury or any collection of individuals acting *as a whole toward one common object or end,* we use the word "it"; as, "The jury *is* making *its* decision." When, however, we consider the collection as *individuals acting in their own individual affairs,* we use the pronoun "they," "their," or "them"; as, "The jury *are* eating *their* dinner."

Names are often given to ideas or theories or qualities which, of course, we cannot see, hear, smell, taste, or touch. We speak, for instance, of "the spirit of bravery," and yet no one ever saw or heard or tasted spirit or bravery. We may have seen some concrete result of this spirit, such as a fort or ship captured by the man with such a spirit, or we may have seen a man who was brave; but we cannot discern spirit or bravery with our five senses. We speak of the redness of the rose, but we never saw any redness by itself; we simply have seen the rose or some other object that makes in our minds the impression of red. All such qualities and theories and ideas do not exist in concrete form, like a house or a tree, but are merely impressions formed in the mind. We call the names of such qualities or theories or ideas **Abstract Nouns,** the word "abstract"

being from a Latin word meaning "to separate." Then, **the name of a quality, impression, condition, or action, considered apart from the object to which it belongs, is known as an Abstract Noun.**

IV

GENDER

All things are male or female, or have no sex at all, as in the case of a man, a woman, and a house. Now, what we call sex in actual life we call **Gender** in grammar; that is, **Gender is the classification of a noun according to the sex of the object it names.** In present-day English, since we see that everything is male or female, or without sex, we say that there can be but three genders in grammar. The names of all objects that are of the male sex belong to the **Masculine Gender**; all that are of the female sex belong to the **Feminine Gender**; and all that have no sex belong to the **Neuter Gender.**

This is, of course, very easy, and shows how our English language is constantly trying to simplify itself; for a thousand years ago our ancestors had arbitrary ways of denoting gender, and might say that a thing with no sex was of masculine or feminine gender, or that an animal of male sex was of feminine gender. Thus, our ancestors put the words "stan" and "snaw," meaning "stone" and "snow," in the masculine gender, and the

word "sunne," meaning "the sun," in the feminine gender. Even yet, the Germans speak of a basket as "she," and a young woman *(fraülein)* as "it." We English-speaking people are very fortunate, therefore, in having reduced all genders to a simple agreement with sex.

We still have, however, some slight relics of our ancestors' efforts to denote gender without regard to sex. For instance, in poetry, or sometimes in ordinary speech, we speak of the sun as "he," and of the moon as "she"; as in the sentence, "The sun shoots *his* hot rays, but the moon floods the night with *her* soft light." We sometimes speak of the spring as coming with *her* flowers and grass. In this way we treat such sexless things as *persons,* and then we are said to **Personify** such objects. In other words, **ascribing life and sex to an object without life or of unknown sex is known as Personification.** If the object gives us an impression of power, strength, or other male qualities, we speak of it as of the masculine gender; if it seems to possess gentleness, beauty, grace, and other female qualities we speak of it as of the feminine gender. Thus: "The winter wind roared in *his* strength," and "Spring hangs *her* blossoms upon the trees."

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with pronouns which seem appropriate:

The child was unconscious of ——— danger.
Close in ——— nest hid the bird Can a

leopard change ——— spots? Even a fool, when ——— holdeth ——— peace, is counted wise. The wild beast from ——— cavern sprang, the wild bird from ——— nest. The nightingale filled the night with ——— song.

You can see by the above sentences that one of the principal reasons for knowing the gender of a noun is that we may know what *pronoun* to use in the place of the noun. Thus, if we did not know boy is of the masculine gender, we might make the mistake of saying, "The boy lost *her* own coat," instead of, "The boy lost *his* own coat." Gradually, of course, the use of certain pronouns with certain nouns becomes conventional; as in the sentence, "The laborer stopped to eat *his* lunch." One of these conventional uses now slowly gaining ground is the use of the feminine gender when referring to the word "teacher," for, although during many centuries the pronoun "he" was always used in referring to the noun "teacher," now the laws of several states refer to the teacher with the pronoun "she."

In English there are three ways of denoting the feminine gender: (1) by using an entirely different word from the masculine form; as *monk—nun; stag—hind;* (2) by adding "ess" to the masculine form; as in *actor—actress; giant—giantess;* and (3) by attaching some prefix to the

original noun; as *he-bear—she-bear; man-servant —maid-servant.*

It may be noticed from what has been said of collective nouns, that they are considered as of the *neuter* gender.

Now, from memory or by the use of a dictionary, give the nouns of the opposite gender for the following words:

Abbot, buck, monk, deacon, hero, waiter, hen-sparrow, earl, duck, goose, witch, bachelor, lad, hunter, ram, count, czar, sultan, duke.

V

NUMBER IN NOUNS

Of course, there may be a great amount of almost anything, many boys, many apples, many houses. It is necessary, therefore, to distinguish in grammar between the name of *one* object and the name of *many* of that same kind of object. Thus, we say "house" or "houses," "ox" or "oxen," "man" or "men." Now, **this difference in the form of a word to show whether one or more than one is meant is known as Number.**

Just as in the case of gender, we have to know the *number* of a noun in order to know what form of the *pronoun* to use, whether "he" or "they," "him" or "them," "his" or "theirs." Moreover, if we know the number of the noun we know what form of the *verb* to use, whether "is" or "are," "was" or "were," etc.

In most of the foreign languages a speaker has to remember several endings that might be added to a noun to make it plural. For instance, in Latin he might have to add an *i* or an *ae* or an *a*. He would have to say *viri* for men, *feminae* for women, and *bella* for wars. Even in our own English, say of a thousand years ago, the plural might be made by adding *as*, as *muthas* (mouths), *u* as in *speru* (spears), or *a* as in *wunda* (wounds). Here, again, we who speak modern English have the advantage, and can see once more how our language is constantly trying to simplify itself; for today the English tongue commonly makes its plurals by adding an *s* or an *es*, or sometimes adding nothing at all, as "hats," "boxes," "fish." Now and then some foreign word which has crept into our language retains its foreign ending for the plural, such as "alumnus," "alumni"; but these words are comparatively few, and even they oftentimes gradually lose their foreign endings and add simply an *s*, or *es* to make the plural.

The rules for making the plural in our language are few and easy. The great majority of English nouns add simply an *s*. If the noun, however, ends with a sound that does not unite with the *s* sound, then an *es* is added, as "box," "boxes." If the final letter of the noun is a vowel, and is preceded by another vowel, we almost always add simply *s;* for the English language commonly

avoids using three vowels together. Thus, we write the plural of "cameo," "cameos." If the final vowel is an *o,* preceded by a consonant we commonly add *es,* as "heroes," "potatoes," but there are a few exceptions which are so much in use that some of them should be given here. The following words require only an *s:*

Banjo, burro, canto, chromo, contralto, dynamo, halo, lasso, piano, proviso, quarto, solo, stiletto.

If a noun ends with a *y* preceded by a vowel, we add simply *s,* for the same reason given above, that the English language generally avoids the use of three vowels together. Thus, we use the forms "alleys," "valleys." But if this final *y* is preceded by a consonant, we commonly change the *y* to an *i* and add *es,* as "ally," "allies"; "city," "cities."

Again, if a noun ends in a single *f* or *fe,* we generally change the *f* or *fe* to a *v* and add *es,* as "calf," "calves," "leaf," "leaves," "shelf," "shelves." But the plural of "roof" is "roofs," and of "hoof" is generally "hoofs." If the noun ends in *ff* we commonly add simply *s,* as "cliff," "cliffs."

In Old or Early English the plural of nouns was frequently made by adding *en,* and we still use this form for a few words, as "ox," "oxen," "child," "children," "brother," "brethren." Again, in the Old English the plural was sometimes indicated by changing the main vowel or

vowels, and we retain this form in a few plurals of today; such as, "feet," "mice," and "teeth."

For many centuries some nouns have made no change at all for their plurals, and now and then this form becomes conventional or correct for some word that has long added an *s* or an *es*. Among the words long unchanged in the plural are "sheep," "deer," "swine," and "trout"; while among the nouns more lately making no change in the plural are "head" in such an expression as "three head of cattle," "foot," as in "ten foot of lumber," and "yoke," as in "five yoke of oxen."

Writers should be careful not to use the *'s* in making a plural; the *'s* is often a sign of possession or is written instead of "is" in such an expression as "*He's* a good man." There is only one set of plurals with which this *'s* may be used, and that is letters, figures, and symbols. Thus, we may write, "He had three *x's*," "Five *3's* hang over his shop," "It is not best to use *&'s* instead of *and* in your writing."

In making the plural of a compound noun, always determine which is the more important part of the word and add "s" or "es" to that part. Thus, in "horse-car" the "car" is the more important part of the word, and the plural is "horse-cars"; in "court-martial" "court" is the more important part, and the plural is "courts-martial"; in "forget-me-not" all parts are of

equal importance, and the plural sign is placed at the close, "forget-me-nots." In making the plural of "man-servant" and "woman-servant" it is customary to make *both* words of the noun plural: "men-servants," "women-servants." In such words as "spoonful," "cupful," when the *same* spoon or cup is used over and over as the measure, and our main thought is on the syllable "ful," we add the "s" to the "ful," but if the amount is expressed in two separate words, as "spoon full" and "cup full," then the "s" is added to the first word, "spoon" or "cup." Thus: "He had three cups full of water," "He took three spoonfuls of the medicine."

At this point it should be remembered that not all words ending in "man" mean a male human being, and that often such words, not meaning *man,* do not change the plural to end in "men." Thus, "Norman," "Brahman," "Ottoman," and "German" may mean either man or woman, and their plurals are made by adding "s." "Frenchman," however, is almost always applied to the *man* only, and its plural is "Frenchmen." "Talisman" is a charm and not a human being, and its plural is "talismans."

Some attention should be given to the different ways of making the plural of proper nouns. A proper noun seldom makes any other change for its plural than simply adding an "es" or "s." Thus, we may speak of "the eight Henrys," "the

many Caesars," "the cruel Neros." If the proper noun has a title before it, as in Mr. Tennyson, Mrs. Tennyson, Miss Tennyson, Colonel Tennyson, Lord Tennyson, we may place an "s" at the close of the name, as the Mr. Tennysons; or we may make the title plural as the Messrs. Tennyson, the Mesdames Tennyson, the Misses Tennyson, etc.

A few English words have two plurals, each having a slightly different meaning. Thus, "cloths" are merely pieces of cloth not yet made into clothing, while "clothes" are the finished garments. "Fish" is the general name for a class or collection, while "fishes" is the plural form used when we consider the separate objects as individuals. Thus, we may say, "We caught a string of fish," but we may tell a story of three little fishes. Other words having two plurals are brother (brothers or brethren), die (dies, dice), genius (geniuses, genii), index (indexes, indices), penny (pennies, pence), and shot (shot, shots). *By means of your dictionary distinguish between the meanings of these plurals.*

Again, some nouns look so much like plurals, even though they may be in the singular number, that confusion has arisen in their use, and sometimes the best writers differ as to the correct form. Thus, alms, measles, gallows, news, and mathematics may look plural, but they are generally considered as singular, and should go with

singular verbs, such as "is" and "was," and not "are" and "were." "Athletics" is one of the most doubtful, but perhaps the majority of writers consider this word as plural. Ashes, dregs, eaves, oats, pincers, riches, suds, and wages are commonly considered as plural, and the plural form of a verb, such as "are" and "were," not "is" or "was," should be used with such words.

As mentioned above, some foreign words have crept into our language, bringing their foreign plurals with them, and some of these are in such common use that it may be well to memorize several of them:

Alumnus	alumni	formula	formulae formulas
Alumna	alumnae	genius	geniuses genii
analysis	analyses	genus	genera
bacterium	bacteria	memorandum	memorandums memoranda
beau	beaux beaus	oasis	oases
cherub	cherubs cherubim	parenthesis	parentheses
crisis	crises	phenomenon	phenomena
datum	data,	seraph	seraphs seraphim
		stratum	strata
		thesis	theses

VI

CASE

Students of the history of our language are constantly reminded of the efforts made by it

to rid itself of all grammatical forms and to become as simple as possible. Thus, in Anglo-Saxon or Old English, the language spoken long ago by our ancestors, various endings were attached to a noun to show its different relations to other words in a sentence. When the boy of a thousand years ago wished to indicate that a noun meant possession, he sometimes added to it an "es," sometimes an "e," sometimes an "a." Thus, if he wished to say, "of the bone," he had to say "bane*s*"; if, "of the gift," "gif*e*"; if, "of the hand," "hond*a*." Again, if he wished to say, "from or by the bone," he had to remember to say "bane," if "from or by the bones," "ban*um*." So for every noun and every relation of that noun he had some peculiar ending to learn. Luckily, today we escape such memorizing, and all we have to keep in mind is the use of the "'s" at the close of a noun when we wish to denote possession.

Now, **this form of the noun to show its relation to some other words in the sentence has long been known as Case.** But since we have practically no such forms for English nouns, some scholars now declare that we have no such thing as case, and that we should say simply that we have two *forms;* the *common* form, and the *possessive* form. If, however, we consider case as not a form of the noun, but as the *relationship of a noun to other words in a sentence,* then, perhaps,

we may claim that we still have case in English. Perhaps, therefore, we may say that the **relation of a noun or a pronoun to other words in the sentence is its Case.**

If a noun or a pronoun is the *subject* of a sentence, it is said to be in the **Nominative Case.** If it *shows possession,* it is said to be in the **Possessive Case.** If it is used as the *object* of a verb or of a preposition it is said to be in the **Objective Case.**

It should be noted that in pronouns we do indeed have different *forms* to show the different relations or cases. Thus, we should not say, "*Me* gave it to *he,*" but, "*I* gave it to *him.*" "I" and "he" and "she" and "they" are always used as *subjects,* that is, as *nominative case,* and "me" and "him" and "her" and "them" are always used as *objects,* that is, as *objective case.* But in the use of nouns we make no such distinctions in form for cases. Thus, in the sentence, "I spoke to *John* and *John* spoke to me," the noun "John" remains unchanged, although in the first part of the sentence it is used as an object, and in the second part as the subject.

Therefore, in the use of nouns the only matter to be remembered in connection with case is the use of the " 's." This should always be used in the possessive case, unless the noun ends in an "s," when only the apostrophe is needed. In using compound nouns the " 's" or the " ' " is placed at the close of the entire word, as "son-

in-law's. Again, if two persons *together* own something, the sign of possession is put after the name of the *last mentioned* person only, as, "Will and Jane's book"; but if each *separately* owns a thing, then the possessive sign is placed after the name of each owner, as "John's and Jane's books." One common error is to use "everybody's else" and "anyone's else." Such forms should always be considered as *one word,* and the possessive sign should be placed at the close of the two words, as "everybody else's," and "anyone else's."

Of course, possession may be shown by the use of the preposition "of" in front of the noun instead of by the use of the " 's." Thus, we may say either "the bravery of Grant," or "Grant's bravery." But such forms do not always mean exactly the same. For instance, "John's story" might be one *told by* him, while "a story of John" might mean a story *about* him. Again, "Lincoln's reception" might mean one *given by* him, while "the reception of Lincoln," might mean one given *for* him. Sometimes, too, we follow the peculiar method of showing possession by using both the preposition "of" and the " 's," as, "A tale of Mr. Smith's." This is known as the Double Possessive, and is helpful in distinguishing between such meanings as a tale *about* Mr. Smith, and one of his own stories.

Perhaps it would be well to see if you under-

stand the methods of showing possession, by giving the possessive forms of the following nouns:

Father-in-law, Frederick the Great, Heath & Co., Charles Dickens, Jones, prince, princess.

Some books on grammar arrange the cases of a noun in the following order:

	Singular	*Plural*
Nom.	man	men
Poss.	man's	men's
Obj.	man	men

But this process, known as **Declension,** is probably unnecessary for English nouns; for the only matter to keep in mind is the form of the possessive.

VII

PERSON

In the sentence, "*I,* the *author* of this grammar, wrote it for you," the pronoun "I" represents the speaker, and the noun "author," explaining who I am and therefore in apposition with "I," also represents the *speaker.* The noun "grammar" and the pronoun "it" represent the thing *talked about;* while the pronoun "you" represents the person *spoken to.* Now, **this distinction in nouns and pronouns to denote the person or thing speaking, spoken to, or spoken of, is known as Person.** If the noun or pronoun repre-

sents the person *speaking* it is said to be in the **First Person**; if the person *spoken to*, the **Second Person**; if the person *spoken of*, the **Third Person.** In the English language the noun does not change its form at all to represent any person and we must depend upon the pronoun accompanying the noun to show us what person the noun is in.

VIII

USE OR CONSTRUCTION

Now, since we have seen all the traits of a noun, we should be able to tell all its relations to other words in a sentence. **The relation of a word to other parts of a sentence is known as its use or construction.** Thus, a noun may have any of the following uses or constructions: *

1. Subject of a Verb ("The man is gone.")
2. Attribute or Subjective Complement ("He is a man.")
3. Object Complement or Direct Object ("I paid the man.")
4. Objective Complement ("They call him a man.")
5. Object of a preposition ("I spoke to the man.")
6. Indirect Object ("I gave every man his pay.")
7. Possessive ("This is a man's work.")
8. Appositive ("He, a man, acted like a child.")

* It is not necessary that the student should memorize this list, but that he should recognize each use when he meets it in a sentence.

9. Adjective modifier ("The man worker is often stronger than the woman worker.")
10. Adverbial modifier ("John, act the man!")
11. Vocative ("Man, do your duty.")
12. Exclamation ("O man! how wonderful you are.")
13. Subject of an Infinitive ("We believed the man to be a worker.")
14. Nominative Absolute ("The man being ill, we stayed with him.")

The use of a noun as the *subject of an infinitive* and as a *nominative absolute* should be explained at this point. In the sentence, "We believed the man to be a worker," we do not mean to say that we *believed the man,* but that we believed this: *the man to be a worker.* In other words, we believed the idea in all this group of words. We might have stated the sentence thus: "We believed *that the man is a worker.*" In this sentence the noun "man" is the subject of "is." Similarly, in the former sentence, "man" is the subject of the infinitive "to be." Now in almost any language the subject of an infinitive is in the *objective case,* and so it is in English, as may be seen from the following sentence: "I believe *him* (not *he*) to be a worker." This use of a noun or pronoun in the objective case as the subject of an infinitive is very common, and in the use of the pronoun for this purpose we should always remember to use the objective case.

Now, as to the use of a noun in what is called the *nominative absolute,* it may be of help to remember that the word "absolute" comes from a Latin word meaning "free." Sometimes we attach to a sentence a few words which are almost grammatically free, as in the sentence, "*The man being ill,* we stayed with him." Here the group of words, "the man being ill," is but loosely hanging to the main part of the sentence; in other words, the group is almost *free.* Such a use of a noun or pronoun is called the *nominative absolute,* because the noun or pronoun is in the nominative case, and is almost free from the remainder of the sentence. Other examples are: "*He being tired,* I left him there." "I lay down, *my body (being) weary* and *my soul (being) troubled.*"

It will be noticed that in every sentence a participle is either present or supposed to be present with the nominative absolute. Sometimes we omit the participle, but we should never omit the noun or pronoun; for this leaves the participle hanging alone, making what is called a **Dangling Participle.** This sometimes gives a wrong or even ridiculous meaning to the sentence; as, "Having gone out, we built a new fire," and "Crossing the river, my hat flew off." In these sentences we apparently are saying that *we* instead of the *fire* went out, and that the *hat* was crossing the river by itself. We should say, "The

fire having gone out, we built a new one," "I crossing the river (or "while I was crossing the river"), my hat flew off."

In your writing and speaking if you will endeavor to use nouns and pronouns in all these various ways you will give variety to your language, and will thus avoid that monotonous, humdrum manner of expression used by those people who seldom make a noun or a pronoun act otherwise than as a subject or direct object.

You have seen the various ways in which the possessive case may be used; now let us see if you can construct sentences in which the nominative case is used in the following constructions:

Subject of a verb,
Attribute or Subjective Complement,
Vocative,
Exclamation,
Nominative Absolute,
Adjective modifier,
Apposition.

Similarly, see if you can construct sentences using the objective case in the following ways:

Direct object,
Objective complement,
Indirect object,
Object of a preposition,
Subject of an Infinitive,
Adverbial modifier,
Appositive.

IX

PARSING

Now, when we describe a word according to its traits and its relations to other parts of a sentence, we are said to **Parse** it. Thus, when we parse a noun we tell the following:

Its class,
Its gender,
Its number,
Its person,
Its case,
Its use or construction.

Sometimes it is helpful in obtaining the exact meaning of a sentence to parse some of its nouns, and therefore some practice on the nouns in the following selections is advised:

Bright the lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men. The characters in this book, which is called *Vanity Fair*, are like those that we meet in daily life. Roll on, thou dark and deep blue ocean, roll! It is strange that some men seem destined to meet with success, and others with misfortune. In a multitude of counselors there is safety.

The mossy marbles rest
On the lips that he has prest
In their bloom;
And the names he loved to hear
Have been carved for many a year
On the tomb.

Our fathers' God, to thee,
Author of liberty,
To thee we sing;
Long may our land be bright
With freedom's holy light;
Protect us by thy might,
Great God, our King!

At his side in all her beauty,
Sat the lovely Minnehaha,
Plaiting mats of flags and rushes.

CHAPTER II

PRONOUNS

I

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

We have seen that a pronoun is a word used in place of a noun. Now, there are different kinds of pronouns, according to what their *uses* are. When we studied nouns we found that the name of the *person speaking* is said to be in the *first person,* that the name of the *person spoken to* is said to be in the *second person,* and that the name of the *person spoken of* is said to be in the *third person.* Just so it is with pronouns. In such a sentence as "I gave you money for him," the pronoun "I" represents the person *speaking,* and is in the *first person;* the pronoun "you" represents the person *spoken to* and is in the *second person;* while the pronoun "him" represents the person *spoken of,* and is in the *third person.* Thus, in examining such pronouns we may tell by their *form,* their very *looks,* what person they are in. **Such pronouns as show by their form whether they represent the person speaking,**

spoken to, or spoken of are known as Personal Pronouns.

Now, since several of the most common errors that are made in writing and speaking are caused by the misuse of personal pronouns, we should carefully examine the traits of such pronouns and learn exactly their correct uses.

When I wish to say that only one person is writing this book, I may say, "*I* am writing this grammar." If, however, someone else were aiding me, I may say, "*We* are writing this grammar." If it is my own work, I may say, "This is *my* book," or "This book is *mine.*" If someone else aided me, I may say, "This is *our* book," or "This book is *ours.*" Again, I may say, "This book is being written by *me,*" or "This book is being written by *us.*" Now, in these sentences we have all the forms of the personal pronoun of the first person, and we may put them in the following order:

	Singular	*Plural*
Nom.	I.	we.
Poss.	my, mine.	our, ours.
Obj.	me.	us.

Again, let us write sentences using the personal pronoun of the second person. If I speak to some one, I may say to that person, "*You* should study this grammar." If the book belongs to some one, I may say to him, "This is *your* book," or "The

book is *yours.*'' Again, I may say, ''This book was lent to you.'' In the first sentence ''you'' is used as a subject, and is in the nominative case; in the second sentence ''your'' or ''yours'' denotes possession, and is, therefore, in the possessive case; while in the third sentence ''you'' is the object of ''to,'' and is therefore in the objective case. In this second person of the personal pronoun the form is the same whether we speak to one or more than one. There is an ancient style of the second person, ''thou,'' ''thy'' or ''thine,'' and ''thee,'' but this is used today only in poetic or sacred language. Thus, we may place all the forms of the second person of the personal pronoun in the following orderly arrangement or declension:

	Singular	*Plural*
Nom.	you (thou).	you (ye).
Poss.	your, yours (thy, thine).	your, yours.
Obj.	you (thee).	you.

Remember always to use the plural form of a verb with the pronoun you. Do not say, ''You was,'' but ''You were,'' even though you are addressing one person. To say ''You was'' is considered as incorrect as to say, ''You is,'' or ''You sings.''

Suppose we wish to use the third person of the personal pronoun. We may write, ''He did this,'' ''She did this,'' or ''It did this,'' or if

more than one person did the work we may say, "*They* did this." "He," "she" and "it" are in the singular number and the nominative case, while the pronoun *they* is in the plural number and the nominative case. If we wish to show possession, we may say, "This is *his* work," or "This work is *his.*" "This is *her* work," or "This work is *hers,*" or "This is *its* work," or "This work is *its.*" If the possession is by more than one person or thing we may say, "This is *their* work," or "This work is *theirs.*" Thus we have the possessive case in both the singular and the plural. If we wish to use the objective case we may write, "The men gave it to *him,*" or "*her,*" or "*it,*" or "*them.*" So we may place all these various forms of the third person of the personal pronoun in an orderly arrangement or declension:

	Singular	*Plural*
Nom.	He, She, It.	They.
Poss.	His, Her, Hers, Its.	Their, Theirs.
Obj.	Him, Her, It.	Them.

Now that we have before us all the forms of personal pronouns in every case and number, let us examine their correct uses.

In the first place, no pronoun ever requires an apostrophe in making its possessive. Therefore, do not use "her's," or "it's" but "hers" and "its." In the second place, do not use the ob-

jective case in place of the nominative case; in other words, never use the objective form for the subject or the nominative form for the object. Therefore, it is not considered correct to say, "Me and John (or John and me) went," or "Will and me are ready," for the word "me" is in the objective case and should not be used as the subject. In the third place, do not use the nominative case in place of the objective case; in other words, do not use the forms that are for the subject only (I, we, he, she, and they) for a direct object or the object of some preposition. Thus, do not say, "Between you and I," or "He spoke to John and I," or "He told it to we three"; but "Between you and *me,*" "He spoke to you and *me,*" "He told it to *us three.*" Suppose you omit the words "you and" or "John and," and notice that you would be saying "Between *I,*" "He spoke to *I,*" which, of course, sounds ridiculous. In the fourth place, in using together two or more personal pronouns of different person, always place the second person, or the person addressed, *first,* and the "I" or "we" last. Thus it is not considered good taste or correct grammar to say, "I and John went," or "I and you will stay," but rather "John and I," and "You and I."

It is still considered better English to say, "It is I," "It is she," "It is he," "It is they," rather than "It is me," "It is him," "It is her," "It

is them." This is because the verb "is" or any form of "to be" (am, are, was, were, will be) requires the *same case* on both sides of it. The verb "is" means, of course, nothing more than "equal to," and such sentences might be expressed thus: It = I, it = he. In other words, since "is" has the nominative case in front of it, it should have the nominative case after it. But this distinction is gradually breaking down, and possibly within a few years such forms as "It is him," and "It is me" may be considered correct. It should be remembered, however, that "to be" or "to have been" is an *infinitive,* and we have seen that the *subject of an infinitive* in most languages is in the *objective* case. If "to be" or "to have been" has the objective case directly in front of it, it must have the objective case after it. Thus, it is correct to say, "It is I," but not correct to say, "He knew it to be I." Here the word "it," which is the subject of the infinitive "to be," is in the *objective* case, and "to be" must therefore have the *objective* case on the other side. Thus, the sentence should be "He knew it to be *me.*"

Perhaps it would be helpful to put down in an orderly arrangement the uses of the nominative and objective cases of personal pronouns:

Nominative

Subject of the verb ("*I* did it.")

Attribute or Subjective Complement ("It is *I*.")

Vocative ("*You*, sir, are you coming?")

Nominative Absolute ("*He* being weary, we rested.")

Exclamation ("*He!* Why, he is the bravest of them all!")

Objective

Direct Object ("He hit *me*.")

Indirect Object ("He gave *me* money.")

Object of a Preposition ("He came to *me*.")

Subject of an Infinitive ("He commanded *me* to do it.")

Attribute or Subjective Complement after an Infinitive ("He thought it to be *me*.")

Exclamation ("Poor *me*, how tired I am!")

Now, everyone speaking the English language should endeavor to use it as correctly and as accurately as possible, and, as errors in the use of personal pronouns are so common, you are urged to make sure that you understand exactly what forms should be placed in the following blanks, and why:

I, me.

He is taller than ————. She knew it to be ————. Wait for John and ————. She knew that it was ————. He is not so young as ————. May John and ———— go? It was ———— that told him. If you were ———— would you do it? He gave John and ———— a ball. Will you go with John and ————. Everybody is going except you and ————. Between

you and ———— he acts curiously. When you saw John and ———— we were going to school. It makes no difference to John or ————. Which do you think is the taller, John or ————.

We, us.

They thought it was ————. It was ———— whom you met. He knew it to be ————. Some people are wiser than ————. John as well as ———— is going. It isn't for such as ———— to want such things. ———— boys are going to the picnic. That is a strange doctrine among ———— Americans. He spoke to ———— people sitting there.

He, him.

Was it ———— you saw? ———— that is idle, reprove. We knew it was ————. We knew it to be ————. What were John and ———— talking about? It makes no difference to either John or ————. Not many could have done it so quickly as ————. What can you expect from such as ————. I am taller than ————. If I were ———— I shouldn't do it. ———— that overcometh will I make a pillar in the temple. Have you ever seen John and ———— in that place?

She, her.

It was ———— or her sister. ———— and John play together. I am taller than ————. Was it ———— that did this? John and ———— went yesterday. Very few could do it faster than ————. I invited them all, ———— among the rest. I think that lady is ————. I supposed the lady to be ————. Girls like you

and ——— should not do this. Have you ever seen John and ——— there? Every one was there except ——— and her mother.

They, Them.

It must have been ———. I supposed it to be ———. I know it to have been ———. None so blind as ——— that will not see. I am heavier than ———. It isn't for such as ——— to advise us. It makes no difference to either John or ———. I never saw the girls and ——— there. ——— that do not study must be punished. ——— that do not study I shall have to punish.

We have seen what gender means in nouns: that it represents the sex of the object named. Now, since a pronoun takes the place of a noun, the pronoun will, of course, have the same gender as the noun for which it stands. As we have noted earlier, in the use of personification, gender is determined for the name of an object according to the strength, weakness, grace, beauty, and other qualities of the object. Thus, if an object is supposed to have strength, bravery, and similar qualities, the pronoun is considered as being of the masculine gender; if grace, beauty, tenderness and similar qualities are supposed to be present, the pronoun is considered to be of the feminine gender. Thus, we may say, "The sun shot *his* rays during the day, but at night the moon poured forth *her* soft light."

Similarly, pronouns that stand for the names of animals are considered, when personified, as masculine or feminine, according to what traits are thought of. Thus, we may say, "The lion roared *his* rage, and the frightened bird fled to *her* nest."

We have noted elsewhere that nouns like "laborer," "person," and "teacher" are generally referred to as *masculine,* but that the tendency to consider "teacher" as *feminine* is growing. The word "child" is referred to with the neuter pronoun "it," if the child is considered too young for independent thought and action. Thus, we may say, "The child was unconscious of *its* danger."

Fill the following blanks with pronouns that seem to you to be appropriate, and give your reasons:

Winter had bound the rivers in ——— icy grasp. The nightingale sang ——— best song. Rome reared ——— towers to the heavens. Every student should be careful in ——— use of these forms. The dog barked in ——— glee, but the cat whined ——— disappointment.

A rather common error in the use of some forms of the personal pronoun lies in the confusion as to the *number* of such pronouns. Thus, "anybody," "nobody," "everybody," "each," "either," and "neither" are in the *singular* number, and therefore any pronoun referring to such

words should also be in the singular number. Thus, it is incorrect to say, "Anybody can do this if *they* try." "Tell everybody to be seated if *they* will." The sentences should be: "Anybody can do this if *he* tries." "Tell everybody to be seated if *he* will."

A few sentences should be experimented with to make sure that this use of number is understood:

> Has everyone done ——— duty? Every boy can do this if ——— tries. Each must do ——— duty. Whoso keepeth ——— mouth and ——— tongue, keepeth ——— soul from troubles. Either John or Will will give you ——— paper.

Sometimes the words "self," and "selves" are added to some forms of the personal pronoun; as, "myself," "himself," "themselves," etc. Such pronouns are known as **Compound Personal Pronouns.** In this connection remember that "hisself" and "theirself" are never correct. Such pronouns have three uses. They may be used for *emphasis;* as, "I, *myself,* will do it." "I saw the man *himself.*" They may be used as *reflexive* pronouns; that is, they may refer back to the subject of the verb; as, "I hurt *myself.*" "Give *yourself* plenty of space." They may be used as *substitutes* for the simple personal pronoun, as "He told John and *myself.*"

II

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

We have seen that every pronoun stands for a noun. Sometimes this noun is given in the same sentence with the pronoun, and is called the **Antecedent** of the pronoun. Thus, in the sentence, "The *man who* understands grammar can generally speak correctly," we find the pronoun "*who*" referring to the antecedent "*man.*" We find also that there is a subordinate clause, "who understands grammar," and that the pronoun "who" serves to connect this clause with the noun "man." Now, a pronoun that does this service is called a **Relative Pronoun.** In other words, **a pronoun attaching to its antecedent a clause is known as a Relative Pronoun, and the clause is known as a Relative Clause.** Sometimes we attach the word "ever" or "soever" to some form of the relative pronoun, and the result is a **Compound Relative Pronoun;** thus, "whoever," "whatsoever." Now, relative clauses are attached more or less closely to the antecedent. Thus, in the sentence, "I gave the man an *apple, which* he ate quickly," the relative clause, "which he ate quickly," is attached so loosely to the noun that the sentence might be written, "I gave the man an apple, *and* he ate it quickly." Thus, **a relative clause that simply continues the thought**

of the sentence, and does not describe or limit the antecedent is known as a Progressive Relative Clause. Such clauses are always preceded by a comma.

Sometimes a relative clause may be a little more closely attached to the antecedent, and may simply describe this antecedent without limiting its meaning. Thus, in the sentence, "Water, *which* is composed of hydrogen and oxygen, is a liquid," the clause beginning with "which" simply adds a bit of description to the noun "water," and does not limit the water to any certain kind; for all water is composed of hydrogen and oxygen. Now, **a relative clause that merely describes an antecedent is known as a Descriptive Relative Clause.** Such a clause requires a comma, because it is merely a group of words inserted or thrust into the sentence as an extra or excess statement.

A relative clause, however, may *limit* or *restrict* the meaning of the antecedent; as in the sentence, "Water *that* is dirty is not fit to drink." Here the water is limited to a certain kind by the clause, "that is dirty." **A relative clause which restricts or limits the meaning of the antecedent is known as a Restrictive Relative Clause.** Naturally, since this kind of clause is closely bound in meaning to the antecedent, no comma is needed.

Now, if you will examine any good piece of writing you will find that generally, but not always, when a restrictive clause is used, the pro-

noun "that" or "who" or "as" or "but" will be used. If the relative clauses are simply descriptive or progressive the pronoun will be "which" or "who." The word "what" is sometimes used as a relative in a substantive clause; as, "*What* he says is true," and "I believe *what* he says." Here the relative "what" is equivalent to "that which." In both sentences the word "what" is used as the object of "says," just as a noun might be, and for this reason it is a relative pronoun used as a substantive.

Thus, we have all the relative pronouns: "who," "which," "that," "what," "as," and "but." Now, let us examine the uses of them.

The pronoun "who," with its possessive form, "whose," and its objective form, "whom," is used mainly to represent human beings, although now and then it may represent the lower animals. "Who" should never be used to represent lifeless things unless these things are being personified. Thus, it is not the best of English to say, "The house whose roof you see," but rather, "The house the roof of which you see."

The pronoun "which" is used to represent either animals or things, or even a preceding phrase or clause. Thus, we may say, "He told me that the world is flat, *which* I don't believe." Here the word "which" stands for the clause "that the world is flat."

The pronoun "that" refers to human beings,

animals, or things. It may never be preceded by a preposition. When we wish to use the preposition we may change the "that" to a "which"; as in the sentence, "The story *of which* you spoke is true."

Remember to continue using the same pronoun with which you first refer to a noun in a sentence or a group of sentences. Thus, if you begin by using "that," do not a little later use "which" for the same antecedent. Thus, it is not considered good English to say: "This is the house *that* I saw and *which* I described to you."

Now, perhaps a little practice in using relative pronouns may be helpful. Therefore, place the appropriate pronouns in the following sentences:

The dog ——— hurt the child has been captured. That is the man ——— spoke to us. Man is the only animal ——— can talk. The dog dropped the bone ——— another snatched up. I answered five questions ——— was the best I could do. We have left undone those things ——— we should have done. His face, ——— was very pale, was covered with wrinkles. At his house I met my cousin, ——— wanted to see me.

Since a pronoun stands for a noun, it may naturally have the same traits or characteristics as a noun; that is, it may have gender, number, person and case, and, of course, a relative pronoun must agree in all these traits, except the case, with its antecedent. Thus, in the sentence, "The

man whom you saw is my brother," the relative pronoun "whom" has the same gender, number, and person as its antecedent "man"; that is, it is masculine, singular number, third person. In its case, however, the relative pronoun does not have to agree with the noun; for the case of the pronoun depends upon its own relation to other words in its own clause. Thus, in the above sentence, "man" is the subject of the whole sentence and is in the nominative case, while "whom" is the object of the verb "saw" and is therefore in the objective case.

Now, it is sometimes difficult to keep in mind the number of an antecedent, and this confusion leads some speakers to use the wrong number for the verb that accompanies the pronoun. Thus, many people say, "He is one of the best teachers *that has* ever been here." The sentence should be, "He is one of the best teachers *that have* ever been here." For the noun "teachers" is the antecedent of the pronoun, and "teachers" is in the plural. Since the antecedent is plural, the relative pronoun "that" must be plural and since "that" is plural the verb to go with it must also of course be plural.

Remembering this rule, use the proper form of the verb in the following sentences:

He is one of the best men that *(has, have)* ever lived. This is one of the best books that *(was, were)* ever written. Baseball is one of the best

sports that *(has, have)* been invented. He is one of those worthless men who *(is, are)* a nuisance. His house is one of those that *(looks, look)* down on the street.

Likewise, people frequently neglect to notice the relation of a relative pronoun to other words in its own clause, and thus use the wrong case. Thus, we hear, "The man *who* you are looking *at*," and "The boy *who* you are *hitting*." Probably no error is more common in English speech than this. Indeed, it is so common that in a few years so many people may be using it that it may have to be recognized as conventional and correct. But just at present it is not considered the best of English. In the above specimens the speaker forgets that the preposition "at" and the verb "hit" require "whom" and not "who" for their object, and that the expressions should be, "*whom* you are looking at" and "*whom* you are hitting."

In the following sentences determine whether "who" or "whom" should be used:

He is a person ——— I always trusted. He is a person ——— I know to be trustworthy. He is a person ——— I know is trustworthy. The man has been found ——— was thought to be dead. I met a man ——— I doubt not was your friend. A man entered ——— I afterwards discovered, was your friend.

In the following sentences: "*Such as* I have I will give to you," and "His is the *same* disease

as yours," and "This is the *same* hat *that* my father wore," we find that the word "such" takes after it the pronoun "as," and that the word "same" takes either "as" or "that." Accurate speakers and writers make a distinction between the uses of "as" and "that" after "same." "The same that" indicates that the article or thing is the *identical one* and not simply one like it; as in the sentence, "This is the *same* hat *that* my father wore," where the identical hat is meant. In using "the same as," we mean a thing or article or idea similar or exactly like one in mind. Thus, "the same disease as" means the *same kind,* and not the actual one that is troubling someone else.

Sometimes "as" is used as a substitute for "which" to refer to a preceding idea or thought; as, "The child's recovery was uncertain, as is often the case in such critical illnesses."

By the omission of the pronoun subject or object, "but" sometimes acts as a negative relative equivalent to "who not" or "that not," as, "There is not a man in the land but has heard his country's call."

In speaking or writing English we frequently omit the relative pronoun; as in the sentence, "The man *(that)* I saw is gone," but in analyzing the sentence we must, of course, restore such omitted pronouns.

In any newspaper, magazine, or book point out

some of the relative pronouns, name their kinds, give their gender, person, number, and case, and indicate their antecedents.

III

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

In asking questions it is very common to use the pronouns "what," "which," and "who" (or the possessive and objective forms, "whose" and "whom"). Thus, we may ask, "*Who* is he?" "*What* is this?" "*Which* is his?" **A pronoun used to ask a question is known as an Interrogative Pronoun.**

Here, as in the use of the relative pronoun, people often say or write the incorrect case form in using "who." Thus, we hear such questions as, "*Who* are you hitting?" "*Who* are you looking at?" when the question should be expressed thus: "*Whom* are you hitting?" "*Whom* are you looking at?"

In the following sentences use the correct form (who or whom):

——— did you give it to? ——— are you writing to? I don't know ——— to ask. I don't know ——— to ask for. ——— do you take me to be? ——— have you asked? ——— did you say helped you? ——— did you say you helped? I do not know ——— will help me. ——— do you expect to see to-day?

Remember that only sentences asking a direct question are to be followed by a question mark. A declarative sentence may contain an *indirect question.* Thus, the following is a direct question; that is, it is a sentence containing the *exact words* of the question: *"Who are you?"* "I asked, *'What is it?'* " But the following is a declarative sentence containing an indirect question: "I asked *who you were.*" "I asked *what it was.*"

One further caution should be given. If the words "which," "what" and "that" are followed by a noun they are not pronouns but adjectives. Thus, in the sentence, "*What* is the tool?" the word "what" is a true interrogative pronoun; but in the sentence, "*What* tool is it?" the word "what" modifies the noun "tool," and is therefore an adjective. Similarly, in the sentences, "*Which* tool do you want?" "*That* tool is the one," "which" and "that" are adjectives.

IV

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

In English we often point out some particular object or objects with the words "this" and "that," or their plural forms, "these" and "those." Thus, we say, "*This* is mine, *that* is yours." "*These* are mine, *those* are yours." Such words are known as **Demonstrative Pro-**

nouns. In short, **a pronoun that points out a person or object is called a Demonstrative Pronoun.**

Just as in interrogative pronouns, so in the use of "this," "that," "these," and "those," if any one of these words is followed immediately by a noun, as in the sentence, "*This* hat is mine," the word "this" becomes an adjective modifying the noun.

V

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

There remains one other kind of pronoun. In such sentences as, "*Some* will remain, but *many* will go," and "*Each* wanted it, but *neither* got it," the words "some," "many," "each," and "neither" are used in place of nouns and yet do not refer definitely to any certain person or thing. It is appropriate, therefore, to call such words **Indefinite Pronouns. A pronoun not referring to any particular person or thing is known as an Indefinite Pronoun.** There are a large number of these indefinite pronouns, among the most common being "all," "another," "any," "both," "each," "each other," "either," "few," "many," "neither," "none," "one another," "other," "several," "some," and "such."

Many English-speaking people constantly forget that some of these indefinite pronouns mean only *one person* or *one thing,* and that any other

pronoun referring to them must be in the *singular number.* Thus, we often hear, "*Each* must take *their* turn," "*Everybody* can do it if *they* try," when the expressions should be, "*Each* must take *his* turn," and "*Everybody* can do it if *he* tries." "Each" and "everybody" and several others of these pronouns mean but one person or one thing out of a large number.

Just as in the use of demonstrative and interrogative pronouns, if a noun is placed immediately after such words as "each," "another," "some," they become adjectives modifying the noun.

VI

PARSING

Thus, we have seen that there are five kinds of pronouns in English: personal, relative, interrogative, demonstrative, and indefinite. Now it sometimes helps us to understand a pronoun if we point out its kind, its traits, and its use in the sentence, and when we give in an orderly arrangement these facts about a pronoun we are said to **Parse** it. In parsing a pronoun we should tell the following:

1. Its class. (What kind it is.)
2. Its antecedent (if there is one).
3. Its gender.
4. Its number.

5. Its person.
6. Its case.
7. Its use or construction.

Now, parse any pronouns in a paragraph from a newspaper, magazine, or book.

CHAPTER III

THE ADJECTIVE

We have seen in the chapter on Parts of Speech that an adjective is a word describing, modifying, or limiting a noun or a pronoun. Now, if the adjective simply describes, that is, denotes some quality or trait of an object, as in the expressions, "the *tall* man," "the *white* house," it is naturally called a **Descriptive Adjective.** If the adjective indicates amount, how many or how much, or points out which of several articles is referred to, as in the expressions, "*Four* bushels," "*great* piles," "*this* house," it thus limits the meaning of the noun, and is therefore called a **Limiting Adjective.**

In present-day English we have but little trouble in using adjectives correctly, for they very seldom change their form for any reason whatever. Here, once more, we may see how our language has succeeded in simplifying itself; for in Old English, the tongue spoken by our forefathers a thousand years ago, the adjective had a different ending for each gender and each case. Thus, if the Anglo-Saxon boy wished to say "of good gifts," he had to remember to say "god*ra*

gie*fa,*" to show that "godra" (good) was feminine gender, plural number and possessive case to agree with the noun "giefa." But this was too much to remember, and gradually the language dropped endings from its adjectives until now none of them change for gender or case, and only two ("this" and "that") change to make the plural ("these" and "those").

In using these two adjectives, "this" and "that," remember that they are in the singular number, and that, therefore, any noun they agree with is in the singular number. It is very common to hear people say, "I don't like *these sort* of shoes," "I like *those kind* of hats," but such expressions are incorrect; for the words "sort" and "kind" are in the singular number, and the adjective that limits them must also be singular. Therefore we should always say, "*This* sort," "*that* kind."

We sometimes simply express a quality or a trait of an object without saying how much more of that quality or trait this object has than another object has. Thus we say, "It is a *high* hill." Often, however, we wish to make a comparison to show that one object has more or less of a quality or trait than some other object has. Thus, we may say, "That is a *higher* hill," or "This is a *more beautiful* hill." Lastly, we may wish to indicate that some object among several possesses the most of a quality or trait.

Thus, we may say, "This is the *highest* hill." "This is the *most beautiful* hill." In other words, by the use of *er,* or *est,* at the close of an adjective, or by the use of "more" or "most" in front of the adjective, we indicate the degree of the quality or trait. This method is called the **Comparison of Adjectives.** In short, **the use of different forms of an adjective, or the use of "more" and "most" in front of an adjective to indicate degree is called Comparison.**

If the adjective simply describes or limits without making comparison, it is said to be in the **Positive Degree.** If the form of the adjective or the use of "more" before the adjective indicates a larger or a smaller degree of a quality or trait, the adjective is said to be in the **Comparative Degree.** If the form of the adjective or the use of "most" before the adjective indicates the largest or the smallest degree of a quality or trait, the adjective is said to be in the **Superlative Degree.** Thus, we may say: "He is a *large* man." "He is a *larger* man." "He is the *largest* man."

As shown above, we sometimes use "more" and "most" before an adjective to show the comparison, especially if the adjective be a long word. For instance, we generally say, "more and most beautiful," "more and most particular," not "beautifuler" or "particularer." This use of the words "more" and "most" before an adjective

gives us what is commonly called **Phrasal Comparison**, because a phrase is thus formed.

For most adjectives, however, the most common way of indicating comparison is by adding *er* and *est*. Thus, we may say *sweet, sweeter, sweetest; strong, stronger, strongest.*

A few adjectives, however, have brought down from Old English their own peculiar ways of making the comparative and superlative degrees, and these few should be learned by everyone who hopes to use accurate English. They are as follows:

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
bad, evil, ill	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest
fore	former	foremost, first
forth, (*adv.*)	further	furthest
good, well	better	best
late	later, latter	latest, last
little	less	least
many, much	more	most
near	nearer	nearest, next
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest

Of course, there are some adjectives that logically cannot be compared. Thus, if a thing is absolutely straight or perfect or square, it really cannot be more straight or more perfect or more square; but still English-speaking people have so long made comparisons in such adjectives that custom sanctions such forms as "more straight" or "straighter," "more perfect," "more full," "roundest," etc. Some very precise writers overcome such inaccurate statements by using such expressions as "more nearly straight," "more nearly perfect."

The most common error in the use of adjectives lies in the confusion of the comparative and superlative degrees. Strictly speaking, you should always use the *comparative* form when two persons or things are in your thought, and the *superlative* only when *three or more* persons or things are thought of. Thus, it is incorrect to say, "Who is the *tallest,* John or Will?" One should say, rather, "Who is the *taller?*" Again, when you make a comparison of two things or persons you may make your language more accurate by using the word "other" with the name of the second object. Thus, it is better English to say, "Sparrows are more common than any *other* birds," rather than say, "Sparrows are more common than any bird." For the expression "any birds" includes the sparrow also, and

thus you are really saying that sparrows are more common than themselves.

As we have seen earlier in our study, a phrase or a clause may sometimes modify a noun or a pronoun and may thus act like an adjective. Thus, in the sentence, "The roof *of the house* is leaking," "of the house" is a prepositional phrase modifying the noun "roof." In the expression, "The desire to learn is commendable," "to learn" is an infinitive phrase modifying desire, with "for" understood to be present, and thus an infinitive phrase, with a preposition understood, may act as an adjective. In the sentence, "The boy *whittling* the stick borrowed my knife," "whittling the stick" is a participle phrase modifying the noun "boy." Finally, in the sentence, "The boy *who is whittling* borrowed my knife," "who is whittling" is a clause modifying "boy" and therefore acts as an adjective. Thus we see that a phrase or a clause may take the place of an adjective.

Thus we may understand the work of an adjective in a sentence by telling these facts about it: what class or kind it is in; how it is compared; what degree it is in; and what use it has in the sentence.

Now, choose eight or ten adjectives from a newspaper, magazine, or book, and state the above facts about them.

CHAPTER IV

ARTICLES

We have seen that the three words, "a," "an," and "the," used before nouns to make such nouns a little more specific or to call a little more attention to them, are known as **Articles.** These articles make no change whatever to agree in gender or case or number with the noun they are placed with. Here again, you, as a speaker of modern English, are more fortunate than were your ancestors of long ago; for in Old English one had to use the word "se" with nouns of masculine gender and singular number, "seo" with nouns of feminine gender and singular number, "thaet" with nouns of neuter gender and singular number, and "tha" with nouns of plural number. Moreover, the boy of those days had to change the endings of each of the forms above to agree with the case of the noun to which the article belonged. How much more difficult it must have been to use articles then than in this day, when we simply say or write "a," "an," and "the."

In the course of time English-speaking people began to use the neuter form "thaet" more and

more for all sorts of nouns, and this word "thaet" finally became shortened to the word "the." Similarly, the articles "a" and "an" are simply shortened forms of the ancient word "an," or "ane," meaning "one."

Doubtless you very seldom are in doubt as to when to use "a" and when to use "an." Generally when the noun opens with a *vowel sound,* the article "an" is used; as "an apple." When the noun opens with a *consonant* sound, the article "a" is used; as, "a star." But you should remember that some words opening with a *vowel sound* really begin with a *consonant letter,* or vice versa. Thus, the word "honor" begins with a *consonant letter,* but with the *vowel sound* "o." Therefore, the form is "*an* honor." On the other hand, "union" begins with a *vowel letter,* but really opens with a *consonant sound* "y"; therefore, the article should be "a." Again, when a word of several syllables opens with an "h" many speakers and writers use the article "an," because the sound of "h" is here almost lost. Thus, such speakers and writers would say "a history," but "an historical fact."

When "the" is used with a noun it seems to select that noun from a great number, and thus limits it. Thus, "man" might mean any man, or the whole class of animals known as man; but "*the* man" calls attention to some particular man. For this reason "the" is known as the

Definite Article. "A" and "an," however, do not limit the noun in such a manner, and are therefore known as **Indefinite Articles.**

Sometimes "the" and "a" are not articles at all; but this is so seldom true that you are not liable to make mistakes in the matter. Thus, in the sentence, "*The* deeper the well, *the* cooler the water," the first "the" modifies "deeper," which is an adjective, and the third "the" modifies "cooler," which is also an adjective. We have seen that words modifying adjectives must be adverbs, and therefore "the" may sometimes be an *adverb.* Again, in the sentence, "I am going *a*-milking," the word "a" is the remains of an old preposition meaning "to" and is therefore in the sentence above a *preposition.*

Some writers on grammar think that students should parse articles, but this is almost a useless process. However, if you should be called upon to parse an article, you should state two facts: what noun it limits, and what is its kind.

CHAPTER V

THE VERB

I

KINDS ACCORDING TO MEANING

We have seen that a verb is a word that expresses action, being, or state of being, or, since a verb must always be a part of a predicate, we may say that it is a word used with or without other words as a predicate.

Now, in such sentences as: "The ball falls," "The boys whistle," "The man lives," "God is," there is only *one thing* or *one group of things* concerned in the action. In other words, only the *subject* of the sentence is involved in the matter. Now, such verbs are known as **Intransitive Verbs.** We may say, then, that a **verb denoting action, being, or state of being that concerns or involves only the subject is known as an Intransitive Verb.**

Often, however, not only the thing or group of things mentioned in the subject, but also some second thing or group of things is concerned in the action, or affected by it. Thus, in the sentence, "The *boy* hit the *ball*," two things are

concerned in the action, the boy and the ball. Again, in the sentence, "*They* call *him king,*" three things are concerned in the action, they, him and the kingship. In all these sentences the action is done by one thing or one group of things and affects another thing or group of things. Such verbs are called **Transitive Verbs** (Latin *trans,* "across"). In other words, **a verb that indicates action as passing from a doer to the thing affected is known as a Transitive Verb.** There are some English verbs that may be either transitive or intransitive. Thus, if we say, "The kite *flies,*" the verb is intransitive, because only the subject is concerned in the action; but if we say, "The boy *flies* the kite," the verb is transitive, because two things are concerned in the action, the one being the name of the doer, and the other the name of the thing affected. Other examples of such verbs are "burst," "wear," "speak," and "whistle."

There are six verbs in English that have caused more confusion and more incorrect use of the language than almost any other element in its grammar. These are the transitive verbs "lay," "raise," and "set," and the intransitive verbs "lie," "rise," and "sit." The first three, as transitive verbs, must always show action between a doer and a thing affected; the last three, as intransitive verbs, show action in which only the subject is involved or concerned. Therefore

you should never say: "I *laid* down," "I *raised* up," "I *set* down," "He *lays* there all day," "Look at it *raise,*" "Won't you *set* down?" These verbs require more than the subject to be mentioned as concerned in the action. The expressions should be: "I *lay* down," "I *rose,*" "I *sat* down," "He *lies* there all day," "Look at it *rise,*" "Won't you *sit* down?" One is correct in saying, "I *laid it* down," "I *raised it,*" "I *set it* down," "He *lays it* there," "Let him *raise it,*" "Won't you *set it* down?" For in these sentences both the doer and the thing affected are named. To express "rise" in the past we say "rose"; when used with "is," "are," "have been," and other helping or auxiliary verbs, the participle forms "rising" and "risen" should be used. Thus: "I *rise,* I *rose,* I *have risen,* I *am rising.*" To express "raise" in the past we say "raised"; when used with "is," "are," "have," "has been," and other helping or auxiliary verbs, the participle forms "raising" and "raised" should be used. Thus: "I *raise* it, I *raised* it, I *have raised* it, I *have been raising* it, it *has been raised* by me."

To express "sit" in the past we say "sat"; when used with helping or auxiliary verbs, the participle forms "sitting" and "sat" should be used. Thus: "I *sit,* I *sat,* I *have sat,* I *have been sitting.*"

To express "set" in the past we use the same form "set," and with auxiliary verbs the participle forms "set," and "setting." Thus: "I *set* the lamp there now." "I *set* it there yesterday." "I have *set* it there." "I am (or *have been*) *setting* it there." "It *has been set* there by me."

To express "lie" (meaning to recline) in the past we use "lay"; when used with auxiliary verbs, the participle forms "lain" and "lying" should be used. Thus: "I *lie* here." "I *lay* here yesterday." "I *have lain* there before." "I *am lying* here." "I *have been lying* here."

To express "lay" (to put a thing down) in the past we say "laid"; when used with auxiliary verbs, the participle forms "laid" and "laying" should be used. Thus: "I *lay* it here now." "I *laid* it here yesterday." "I *have laid* it here before." "I *am laying* it here." "It *has been laid* here."

To the Teacher: Perhaps it may be well to test the students' knowledge of the forms by reading the following sentences, omitting the verb, and requesting the student to give the correct verb:

The book is lying here. The book lies here. The book has lain here. The book lay here yesterday. I lay the book down. I laid it down. I am laying it down. I was laying it down. The book is lying here. The book was lying there. The

book was laid there. The book is laid there every day. The book has lain there for weeks. The lamp sits here. The lamp sat here. The lamp is sitting here. The lamp was sitting here. The lamp has been sitting here. The lamp has sat here. I set the lamp here. I set it here yesterday. I am setting it here. I was setting it here. It is set there every day. It was set there yesterday. The book rises when I raise it. The book rose. The book is rising. The book was rising. The book has risen. The book had risen. I raise the book. I raised the book, and it rose. I was raising the book, and it was rising. I have raised the book. I have been raising the book. I had raised the book.

There seems to be an idea that if a thing has no life we should use with it "set," "lay," or "raise." This is entirely incorrect. Things or beings *"sit," "lie,"* or *"rise"*; when they are acted upon they are *"set," "laid,"* or *"raised."*

II

KINDS ACCORDING TO FORM

You have seen that the verb "rise" indicates past action by changing to "rose," and that with auxiliary verbs it may change to "risen." The verb "raise," however, simply adds a "d" to make its past or when used with an auxiliary verb. Again, the verb "heat" represents its past by adding "ed," while the verb "mean" simply adds "t" for its past. Now, **a verb that indicates past action by changing internally is known as a**

Strong Verb; while **a verb that indicates past action by adding ed, d, or t is known as a Weak Verb.** This name "weak" is appropriate; for such a verb has to use an "ed" or "d" or "t" as a sort of cane or crutch to help it, while the strong verb needs no outside help.

Some verbs were formerly strong but under misuse have allowed "d" or "ed," or "t" to be added in making their past, and such verbs are now known as **Mixed Verbs.** Thus, we may say "dug" or "digged," "hanged" or "hung."

We have seen that with helping or auxiliary verbs two forms of the participle may be used: as, "laying" and "laid." "I am *laying* it here." "I have *laid* it here." Now the participle ending in "ing" is known as a **Present Participle,** because it generally represents action as unfinished; while the participle ending in any other manner must be a **Past Participle.** Thus, in the sentence, "I am *lying* here," "lying" is the present participle of the verb "lie," while in the sentence, "I have *lain* here," "lain" is the past participle of the verb "lie."

Now, if we know the present or simple form of a verb, and its form when representing action occurring in the past, and its past participle, we can make up all the other forms of the verb from these three. Thus, from "lie" we can make "I *am lying,* I *have been lying,* I *shall lie,* I *shall be lying,*" etc. And if we have the past participle

"lain," we can make the forms "I *have lain,* I *had lain,* I *shall have lain,*" etc. Now, since with these three parts of a verb we can determine what all other parts of a verb are, these three parts, the *present,* the *past,* and the *past participle,* are known as the **Principal Parts.**

If you will be careful to learn the principal parts of verbs and remember that *auxiliary verbs are never used with the past, but must always be used with the participle,* you will avoid many errors in your use of English. Here are the principal parts of some verbs which are most commonly used incorrectly:

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
abide	abode	abode
arise	arose	arisen
am	was	been
awake	awoke, awaked	awaked
bear	bore	borne
beat	beat	beaten
begin	began	begun
beseech	besought	besought
bid (command)	bade	bidden
bid (offer money)	bid	bid
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
cleave (adhere)	cleaved	cleaved
cleave (split)	clove, cleft	cloven, cleft
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
dive	dived	dived
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
flee	fled	fled
fly	flew	flown
forget	forgot	forgotten
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hide	hid	hidden
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lend	lent	lent
lie (recline)	lay	lain
lie (falsehood)	lied	lied
rend	rent	rent
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
seek	sought	sought
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shine	shone	shone
shoe	shod	shod
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
smite	smote	smitten
speak	spoke	spoken
spring	sprang	sprung
steal	stole	stolen
stride	strode	stridden
swim	swam	swum
tear	tore	torn
throw	threw	thrown
wear	wore	worn
write	wrote	written

III

KINDS ACCORDING TO USE

The term "helping or auxiliary verb" has been used several times in previous pages. Such verbs when joined to the present or past participle help to express many different forms of verbs, as, "I *am* singing, I *shall* sing, I *had* sung, I *have been* singing, it *was* sung, it *will be* sung." **A verb that helps to express the meaning of another**

verb is known as an Auxiliary Verb. Most of the verbs in our language express complete meaning in themselves and do not serve to help other verbs. Thus, "sing," "saw," "came," "conquered" are not used to help other verbs, but have *a distinct meaning of their own.* **A verb that states a distinct meaning of its own, and is not used to help another verb is known as a Notional Verb.**

In the following sentences, tell which verbs are notional and which auxiliary:

She does not know me. She does the work. Do you see my book? Have you read it? I am reading it. It is interesting. I hope you may succeed. She was afraid we might be lost. If it should happen, I should be sorry. Can you read this? We will not be there. Do you know him?

IV

NUMBER AND PERSON IN VERBS

We have seen that verbs make a change in themselves to show action in the past; as, "sing," "sang." They frequently change slightly also to show agreement in number and person with their subjects. Thus, we should say, "He *sings,*" but we should not say, "I *sings*" and "you *sings,*" but "I *sing* and you *sing.*" Thus, we add "s" to show that the verb is in the *third person* to agree with "he," but we do not add "s" in the first person and second person. Again, we may say, "She *sings,*" but we should not say,

"They *sings.*" Thus we use "s" with the third person if it is in the *singular* number but not if it is in the *plural* number. Thus, we invariably look to see what number and person the subject has, and then make the number and person of the verb agree with the subject.

In present-day English we make so few changes in verbs to indicate their person and number that some writers on grammar prefer to say that verbs have no person and number. Here again, we modern people are extremely fortunate in the simplicity of the matter. For in Old English there were far more of such changes to show person and number. If the English boy of a thousand years ago wished to say, "I bind," he had to say "bind*e*"; if he wished to say, "We bind," he had to use "bind*ath*"; while if he wished to say "we bound," he had to use "bund*on.*" Thus, again we may see that in the use of its verbs, as in the use of other parts of speech, the English language is constantly making an effort to simplify itself.

Today practically the only commonly used verb that clings to these many changes of long ago is the verb "to be" or "is." In its use we say, "I *am,* thou *art,* (or you *are*), he *is,* we *are,* I *was,* you *were,*" etc. But see how few and simple the forms of any other verbs are; the verbs "stay" and "see," for instance:

PRESENT ACTION

Singular Number	*Singular Number*
First Person. I stay	I see
Second Person. You stay (or thou stayest)	You see (thou seest)
Third Person. He stays (or he stayeth)	He sees (or he seeth)
Plural Number	*Plural Number*
We stay	We see
You stay	You see
They stay	They see

PAST ACTION

Singular Number	*Singular Number*
I stayed	I saw
You stayed (thou stayedest)	You saw (thou sawest)
He stayed	He saw
Plural Number	*Plural Number*
We, You, They } stayed	We, You, They } saw

FUTURE ACTION

Singular Number	*Singular Number*
I shall (or will) stay	I shall (or will) see
You will stay	You will see
He will stay	He will see
Plural Number	*Plural Number*
We shall stay	We shall see
You will stay	You will see
They will stay	They will see

Very little trouble should be met with, therefore, in the use of person and number in verbs, if you will remember to see what person and number the subject has. There are a few instances in which you might become confused, and we shall now examine these.

(1) You will remember that earlier we found that a collective noun takes a singular verb, if the collection is considered as *one body;* as, "The jury *is* making *its* decision." If the collection is viewed, however, as a number of individuals each attending to his own individual activities, the collection is no longer considered strictly as one body, but is considered plural, and the verb must be plural; as, "The jury *are* eating *their* dinner." Again, examine the use of the word "number" as a subject. If we wish to state the actual number of people or things composing a group, the word "number" is looked upon as singular, and the verb must be singular; as, "The *number* of boys *is* fifteen." But if by the word "number" we mean a group or crowd, then we consider the word "number" as plural, and the verb must be plural; as, "A *number* of boys *are* waiting for you."

(2) The pronoun "you" when used as a subject always requires the plural form of the verb, even though only one person is spoken to. Thus, you would not say, "You *is.*" Therefore, do not say, "You *was,*" but "You *were.*"

(3) The title of a book or a story, even though that title looks plural, is considered as in the *singular* number, and requires a singular verb. Thus: "*Gulliver's Travels* is a book."

(4) A few nouns have so long been used together that, even when coupled together, they are looked upon as *one* subject, and may have the verb in the singular number. Among such combinations are "bread and butter," and "house and home." Thus, we may say, "Bread and butter *is* good food," though the use of "are" here would not be considered incorrect.

(5) On the other hand, sometimes a noun with the singular number form may take on a plural meaning by having with it two or more adjectives indicating that two or more kinds of the object are meant. Thus: "*Mental, moral,* and *physical* education *are* all of great value."

(6) If two nouns or pronouns in the singular number are used as a subject, and are joined by "neither—nor," or "either—or," we are really considering only one of such nouns or pronouns at the moment, and, therefore, such a subject is looked upon as *singular,* and the verb must be singular. Thus: "*Neither* Jack *nor* Jill *likes* to fall." If, however, the words joined by "neither —nor," or "either—or" are of different numbers, then the verb generally agrees with the part of the subject nearest that verb. Thus: "One or two *are* here."

(7) Joining other words to the subject by means of such phrases as "in addition to," "as well as," "along with," does not make the subject plural. Thus: "The captain, along with a thousand men, *crosses* the river." "Prudence, as well as valor, *is* necessary."

(8) Do not allow the fact that a noun or pronoun just before the verb is plural to confuse you into using a plural verb. Look back to the subject and see that the verb agrees with the subject only, no matter how many plural words may be between the subject and the verb. Thus: "*Any one* of us *is* entitled to a ticket." "The *reading* of many books *is* tiresome." "My room is one of those *rooms that are* on the second floor." "She is one of the best *girls that have* ever lived."

(9) Remember that "don't" means "do not," and should be used only where you might use "do not." Therefore, to say, "He *don't,*" "The man *don't,*" "It *don't,*" is incorrect; for the subjects are singular, and "do not" is a plural form.

To be sure that you understand the use of person and number in verbs, fill the following blanks:

Five years ——— a long time. Five years' interest ——— due. There ——— many persons to see. The public ——— invited. Neither of the boys ——— a good student. Boys ——— a common noun. One of you ——— mistaken. Neither the orator nor his speech ——— liked. A thousand feet ——— some distance.

V

TENSE

In the opening pages of this book you have been told that in many languages extra letters or syllables have to be attached to a verb when a change in the time of action is to be indicated. In speaking Latin, for instance, the Roman boy had to add some such ending as "abit" to a verb if he wished to indicate action in the future.

For many centuries our ancestors did very much the same thing, and even today we add an extra letter or letters or make a change of some vowel in the verb to indicate action in the past; as, "save," "saved"; "see," "saw." The English boy of a thousand years ago had no way of expressing action in the future other than to use the same form that meant present action. We still do this sometimes; as in the sentence, "He *goes* away next week." Generally, however, we indicate action in the future by placing "shall" or "will" in front of the verb, and this is, of course, much easier than the Latin custom of adding different endings to different verbs. Now, **this change in the form of a verb to denote the time of the action is known as Tense** (from an old French word meaning "time").

As everyone knows, there are three general divisions of time: the *present,* the *past,* and the

future. The verb form that indicates present time is known as the **Present Tense;** the verb form that indicates past time is known as **Past Tense;** and the verb form that indicates future time is known as **Future Tense.** The simple present tense and the past tense are always indicated by one verb; as, "see" and "saw," "pray" and "prayed." Such tenses as require but one verb are known as **Simple Tenses.** As the English people of long ago became more civilized and more discriminating, they felt the need of indicating time more accurately in their language, and therefore they gradually added tenses indicating more clearly when in the past or when in the future an action occurred. This they did by adding a helping or auxiliary verb; as, "*shall* go," "*have* gone," "*had* gone," "*shall be* going," "*shall* have gone." Such tenses are known as **Phrasal Tenses.**

The future tense, which is one of the phrasal tenses, is made by using "shall" or "will" with the simple or root form of the verb; as, "I *shall* sing," "He *will* sing," (equivalent to saying, "I *am going to* sing," "He is *going to* sing").

When we wish to indicate an action as completed or perfected this present moment, we use some form of the auxiliary verb "have" (has, had) in front of the past participle of the main verb; as, "I *have written* the letter." The tense that indicates action as perfected at the time of

speaking is classified as the **Present Perfect Tense.**

Often we wish to state that the action was completed or perfected some time before some other action or deed. Then we use "had" in front of the past participle of the main verb; as, "He *had done* it when I came." The tense that indicates action as completed in the past before some other action or deed is known as the **Past Perfect Tense.**

Finally, we may wish to state that the action will be completed at some rather definite time in the future before some other action or deed. In this instance we use "shall have" or "will have" in front of the past participle. Thus, we may say, "I *shall have written* before he comes." The tense that indicates future action as completed before some other action or deed is known as the **Future Perfect Tense.**

In time even these distinctions were not sufficient for a race that was growing in its powers of discrimination. Hence, forms of the verb were invented to show action as *going on* or *progressing,* and not completed at some certain moment in the present, the past, or the future. The appropriate name of **Progressive** was given to such tenses. Thus, we may wish to indicate an action as going on *now,* at the time of our speaking; as, "I *am writing* the letter." The tense that indicates action as going on at the present or at the time of speaking is known as the **Present Pro-**

gressive Tense. Again, we may wish to indicate action as going on or progressing previous to some other action or deed of the past, as, "I *was writing* when you came." Here "was" is used with the present participle. The tense that indicates action as going on previous to some other action or deed in the past is known as the **Past Progressive Tense.** We may wish to indicate action as going on before some other action or deed in the future; as, "He *will be writing* before I arrive." Here "will be" or "shall be" is placed before the present participle. The tense that indicates action as going on in the future before some other action or deed is known as the **Future Progressive Tense.**

We may go even further, and by adding "been" to the present perfect, as "I *have been writing,*" we obtain what is known as the **Present Perfect Progressive Tense.** By adding "been" to the past perfect tense, as, "I *had been writing,*" we obtain what is known as the **Past Perfect Progressive Tense.** By adding "been" to the future perfect tense, as "I *shall have been writing,*" we obtain what is known as the **Future Perfect Progressive Tense.**

These various small changes in verb forms are exceedingly useful in our language; for they enable us to indicate fine distinctions of time to a degree unknown to our early ancestors. And in a day of civilization and its efforts toward ac-

curacy and exactness such distinctions are almost a necessity.

Tenses may be placed in a phrasal form for other purposes than that of telling time. In such a sentence as, "I did do it," we use the extra verb "did" to emphasize our statement. Again, in the sentence, "*Did* you *sing?*" we use "did" to help make the interrogative form. Finally, in the sentence, "I *did* not *do* it," we use the phrase "did do" with the word "not" in order to state the negative.

Perhaps at this point it would be well to put the various tenses down in an orderly arrangement:

Regular	*Progressive*	*Emphatic*
Pres. I sing	I am singing	I do sing
Past. I sang	I was singing	I did sing
Future. I shall (or will) sing	I shall (or will) be singing	
Pres. Perf. I have sung.	I have been singing	
Past Perf. I had sung	I had been singing	
Fut. Perf. I shall (or will) have sung	I shall (or will) have been singing	

In any newspaper, magazine, or book name the forms of the verbs used and tell why such forms are used.

You will have noticed that in forming the future tense either "shall" or "will" may be used. The most careful writers, in expressing simple future

action with no idea of determination or resolution in it, use "shall" when the subject is in the first person and "will" with all other persons. Thus, some writers and speakers would insist on such a form as "I (or we) *shall* be late." If determination or resolution is intended, such writers and speakers think that "will" should be used in the first person and "shall" with all other persons. Thus, they would say, "I (or we) *will* go." "You *shall* not stop us." Similarly "should" is used in the same manner as "shall," and "would" in the same manner as "will." But in recent years these distinctions have been so broken down in everyday speech and so commonly ignored by even first-rate authors, that it is doubtful whether such difference between the use of "shall" and "will" can now be accepted as a rule.

Of much more importance are the correct forms and uses of the past tense and the participles; for certain uses of these are recognized by all good writers and speakers and are often neglected or ignored by the average person. Thus, we hear such incorrect forms as "He *begun,*" "He *sung,*" "He *has went,*" "He *would have went,*" "He *would have sang,*" "It *blowed,*" "He *throwed.*" Since no person who wishes to be efficient in his language can afford to commit such errors, care should be taken to know the past form of a verb and then *never add an auxiliary verb to this past*

form. Furthermore, care should be taken to know the exact form of the participle, and then *never use the participle without an auxiliary verb.*

Turn back to page 113 and use in sentences the verbs given in the list. Remember that the forms in the second column cannot have auxiliary verbs, and that the forms in the third column must have auxiliary verbs.

VI

VOICE

We have seen that a verb indicating action that involves or concerns only the subject is called an intransitive verb, and that a verb indicating action as passing from a doer to a thing affected is called a transitive verb. Now, a sentence with a transitive verb sometimes makes the *doer* the *subject;* as, "*John* hits the ball," and sometimes makes the *thing affected* the *subject;* as, "The *ball* is hit by John." **This difference in the form of the transitive verb to indicate whether the subject acts or receives the action is known as Voice.** If the verb indicates that the subject is acting, the verb is said to be in the **Active Voice;** but if the verb indicates that the subject receives the action, then the verb is said to be in the **Passive Voice.**

You should be careful not to confuse passive voice with the past tense. The passive voice has nothing to do with the time of action, but simply

shows that the subject is acting or receives the action. Thus, in the sentence, "John *gave* the address," "gave" is past tense but not in the passive voice; while in the sentence, "The address *is given* by John," "is given" is in the passive voice but not in the past tense. If we say, "The address *was given* by John," then "was given" is in both the past tense and the passive voice.

Now, in order that you may ascertain whether you understand clearly the difference between the active and the passive voices, change the verbs in the following sentences into the opposite voice, and state whether in each instance you have made them active or passive.

He abandoned his home. Little strokes fell great oaks. They see us coming. The corn has been damaged by the frost. He was injured by the falling of the tree. They found him lying there. The man imposed upon us. It is said by him to be a good thing. Napoleon's army was defeated by the English. He made many inventions. Good amusements keep people from bad ones.

Sometimes it is a little difficult to tell whether a sentence contains a verb in the passive voice or whether what seems to be a passive verb is not merely *a verb and an attribute or subjective complement* or a verb in the *progressive form.* Thus, in the sentence, "The day is ended," "is ended" is not a verb in the passive voice, but is made of two parts, the verb "is" and the attribute or

subjective complement "ended." When every word in the phrase containing the verb *indicates action* upon the subject, then we may be sure that the phrase is a verb phrase in the passive voice; as, "The apples *are being picked.*" If, however, some word in the phrase containing the verb indicates an attribute or quality of the subject, then we have not the passive voice, but simply a verb and an attribute or subjective complement; as, "His ankle *is sprained.*" Again, in such a sentence as "He *is singing,*" the phrase "is singing" is not in the passive voice, but is simply the *present progressive form.*

Now, see if you can tell which of the following sentences contain verbs in the passive voice:

Rome was not built in a day. The girl is studying her arithmetic. The stars are shining. A fool and his money are soon parted. The quality of mercy is not strained. The school bell is ringing. The school bell is rung every morning. I am not prepared to do this. His hand is hurt. His hand was hurt in the accident.

VII

MOOD OR MODE

We express our thoughts in different moods or states of mind. Often a thought is stated as a positive fact; as, "He *is* here." Sometimes it is stated as a command; as, "*Be* here tomorrow." Sometimes the speaker is in doubt, or supposes

a case to be true even though it may not be; as, "If he *were* here I should feel better." Now, **these differences in the form of a verb to show how the thought is stated or presented are known as Moods or Modes.** Perhaps "moods" is the better name; for the various forms of the verb show what mood your mind is in, whether certain, doubting, or commanding. The form of the verb to state a fact is known as the **Indicative Mood;** the form of the verb to state a command is known as the **Imperative Mood;** the form of the verb to state a thought as uncertain or supposed is known as the **Subjunctive Mood.**

In former centuries much insistence was placed upon the use of the subjunctive mood; but today it is a dying form, and is scarcely ever heard except in the use of the verb "to be"; as, "If I *were* you," or "*Were* he here, it might not happen." Some few very careful writers still use the subjunctive form in other verbs; as, "If he *sing,* I may listen," instead of "If he *sings,* I may listen." Sometimes too we hear the subjunctive in a phrasal form; as, "We were afraid we *might miss* you," and "We trust that he *may live* long." Whenever the subjunctive is used at all in present-day English it expresses some one of the following ideas:

(1) A supposition regarded as untrue or unlikely: "If he *were* here I should go."

(2) A conclusion regarded as untrue or unlikely: "If he were here, he *would answer* you."

(3) A possibility (generally in the subordinate clause): "We were afraid that we *might miss* you."

(4) A wish: "*May* God *forgive* him." "Oh, that he *were* here." "Hallowed *be* Thy name."

(5) A purpose or a reason for an action mentioned in a previous verb: "Judge not that ye *be* not *judged.*"

Since, however, the subjunctive mood seems destined to disappear from the English language, except in the use of the verb "to be," perhaps the only subjunctive forms necessary to place before you are those of this verb.

Present		*Past*	
Indic.	*Subj.*	*Indic.*	*Subj.*
I am	I be	I was	I were
Thou art / You are	Thou be / You be	Thou wast / You were	Thou wert / You were
He is	He be	He was	He were

Concerning the imperative mood there is no necessity to speak, except to caution you not to confuse it with the subjunctive mood indicating a wish. Thus, in the sentence, "Long *live* our king," we have not a command, for no one could command a man to live long, but we have a subjunctive mood of wish.

Now, in the following sentences tell the mood of each verb:

Thy money perish with thee. God forbid. Boast not thyself of tomorrow; for thou knowest not what a day may bring forth. Above all things, get wisdom. The law is good if a man use it lawfully. Live in peace with all men lest they turn upon you and persecute you. If you love me you will follow my commandments. Take heed that ye do not your alms before men, to be seen of them. It were better for him that a mill stone were hanged about his neck, and he be cast into the sea.

In any newspaper, magazine, or book point out several verbs in different moods.

CHAPTER VI

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES

We have seen that an infinitive is a form of a verb having the qualities or traits of both a verb and a noun. Thus, in the sentence, "*To sin* is easy," "to sin" indicates action and therefore has the quality of a verb. At the same time it is used as a subject, just as a noun might be. We have seen that a participle is a form of a verb having the qualities of both a verb and an adjective. Thus, in the sentence, "The boy *whistling* passed by," "whistling" indicates action, and thus has the quality of a verb, and at the same time modifies "boy," in the same way as an adjective might.

Now, there is very little to state in present-day English grammar about either the infinitive or the participle. The following facts should perhaps be noted:

The original or simplest form of a verb, such as "sing," "be," "speak," is known as the **Root Infinitive**, and in ordinary speech is generally preceded by "to": "*To walk* is healthful." "He tried *to speak*." "It is hard *to be* just."

Sometimes we add "ing" to this root infinitive,

giving what is known as the **Infinitive in ing:** "*Climbing* mountains is healthful." "I saw him in the act of *taking* it."

Do not confuse an infinitive in "ing" with a participle in "ing." The infinitive must always have the *noun* quality, and the participle the *adjective* quality. In such a sentence as, "He was heard *singing,*" "singing" is a participle modifying "he," and the sentence might be stated, "He *singing* was heard." In such sentences as: "I am determined *to go,*" "I started to go," the word "for" is understood before the infinitive, and thus the infinitive, as the object of the preposition "for," still acts like a noun.

We may at this point sum up the uses or constructions of an infinitive: (1) It may be used as the subject of a verb: "*To be* just is difficult." (2) It may be used as a subjective or attribute complement: "His hobby is *to raise* flowers." (3) It may be used as an object complement or direct object: "He hates *living* there." (4) It may be used as an objective complement: "I named him *to be* my successor." (5) It may be the object of a preposition: "He was tired of *going* there." (6) It may be used with its own subject in the objective case after verbs of perceiving: "I saw him *go.*"

Sometimes an infinitive expresses action as incomplete at the time indicated in the main verb; as, "He was told *to write.*" In this sentence you

should not consider the infinitive as past or perfect because the main verb happens to be in the past tense. The infinitive "to write" is known as a *present infinitive,* because it represents action as not completed at the time indicated in the principal verb "was told." If the infinitive represents the action as completed at the time indicated in the main verb, then the infinitive is known as a *perfect infinitive;* as, "He is thought *to have died.*" The perfect infinitive can always be told by the presence of "have" between the "to" and the remainder of the phrase. Remember that if the past tense is expressed in either the infinitive or the main verb it is not necessary to express the past tense in *both.* Thus, it is not correct to say, "We *meant to have started* last night," for the principal verb "meant" expresses sufficiently the idea of past time. Again, do not say, "It *would have been* best *to have waited,*" but "It would have been best *to wait.*"

Finally, while discussing this matter of infinitives, we should notice that such words as "let," "may," "might," "should," "would," "can," "must," "ought" are often followed by the infinitive; as, "Let him (allow him to) *go.*" "You may (you have permission to) *go.*" "He should (ought to) *go.*" "He would (it was his custom to) *go* there each day." Sometimes, however, "may," "might," "should," and "would" are used simply as *auxiliary* verbs with another verb to

express a wish, a doubt, or a supposition, and then they are in the *subjunctive mood.* Thus: "He *may* go; he has my permission," is equivalent to saying, "He *has the right* or *the freedom* to go," and "go" is plainly an infinitive. In the sentence, "He *may go,* but I doubt it," "may go" represents uncertainty or a doubtful supposition, and is plainly in the subjunctive mood. Again, in the sentence, "He *should* go; it is his duty," "should go" is equivalent to saying "ought to go," and "go" is therefore an infinitive. But in the sentence, "I *should go* if I were you," we find a doubtful or unlikely conclusion, and "should go" is therefore in the subjunctive mood.

At this point your attention may well be called to the distinction between "can" and "may." "Can" always indicates *power* or *ability;* "may," with the infinitive, always indicates *permission.* Therefore, do not say, "*Can* I go?" for no one doubts your power or ability to walk or go; but say, "*May* I go?" for you are seeking permission.

Sometimes an adverb or other word is placed between "to" and the remainder of the infinitive. This is known as the *split infinitive,* and is condemned by some grammarians. However, it has long been used by excellent writers of English; indeed some of the greatest authors have used it; and, therefore, to say that it should never be used is but a dogmatic ruling, not based on the history of our language.

Just as an infinitive may be either a present or a past infinitive, so may a participle be a present or a past participle. The present participle always ends in "ing"; as, "The man *speaking* is a teacher." The past participle is generally formed by adding *d, t, en,* or *n* to the simplest form of the verb; as, "The book was *taken.*" "Books *taken* from the library must be returned." "Books *meant* to be used are left here." "The fish was *hooked.*"

Since the participle must always possess the qualities of an adjective, it may be used as follows: (1) It may be loosely attached to or may describe the subject, or a noun or pronoun in the objective case; as, "*Seeing* the burglar, *I* cried out." "I saw the *man working* late at night." (2) It may be attached to a nominative absolute; as, "The *day being cold,* we closed." (3) It may be used with an auxiliary verb to form a verb phrase; as, "The man *is hunting* the animal."

CHAPTER VII

CONJUGATION AND PARSING OF VERBS

Now, since we have investigated all the forms and changes of a verb, we may put these forms and changes into an orderly arrangement according to moods, tenses, persons, and numbers. **Such an orderly arrangement of all the forms of a verb is known as Conjugation.** The conjugation of the following verb or of any other verb is not intended for memorizing, but simply as a convenient table or scheme to be referred to whenever you are in doubt as to a form:

ACTIVE VOICE

Indicative Mood

Present	*Present Emphatic*	*Present Progressive*
He plays.	He does play.	He is playing.
Past	*Past Emphatic*	*Past Progressive*
He played.	He did play.	He was playing.
Future		*Future Progressive*
He will play.		He will be playing.

Present Perfect	*Present Perfect Progressive*
He has played.	He has been playing.
Past Perfect	*Past Perfect Progressive*
He had played.	He had been playing.
Future Perfect	*Future Perfect Progressive*
He will have played.	He will have been playing.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present	*Present Emphatic*	*Present Progressive*
(If) He play.	He do play.	He be playing.
Past	*Past Emphatic*	*Past Progressive*
He played.	He did play.	He were playing.
Present Perfect		*Present Perfect Progressive*
He have played.		He have been playing.
Past Perfect		*Past Perfect Progressive*
He had played.		He had been playing.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Present	*Present Emphatic*	*Present Progressive*
Play.	Do play.	Be playing. Do be playing.

INFINITIVES

Root Infinitives

Present	*Present Progressive*
(To) play.	(To) be playing.
Perfect	*Perfect Progressive*
(To) have played.	(To) have been playing.

Infinitives in "ing"

Present	*Perfect*	*Perfect Progressive*
Playing.	Having played.	Having been playing.

PARTICIPLES

Present	*Past*
Playing.	Played.
Perfect	*Perfect Progressive*
Having played.	Having been playing.

PASSIVE VOICE

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present	*Present Progressive*
He is played (as pitcher or catcher).	He is being played.
Past	*Past Progressive*
He was played.	He was being played.

Future

He will be played.

Present Perfect
He has been played.

Past Perfect
He had been played.

Future Perfect
He will have been played.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present
(If) He be played.

Past
He were played.

Past Progressive
He were being played.

Present Perfect
He have been played.

Past Perfect
He had been played.

IMPERATIVE

Present
Be played.

Present Emphatic
Do be played.

INFINITIVES

Present
(To) be played.

Perfect
(To) have been played.

PARTICIPLES

Present
Being played.

Past
Played.

Perfect
Having been played.

We have seen how to parse pronouns, nouns, and adjectives. When a verb is to be parsed the following facts are given:

Its class (strong or weak, or mixed; transitive or intransitive).
Its Principal Parts.
Its Person and Number.
Its Tense.
Its Voice.
Its Mood.
Its Use or Construction.

An infinitive or participle is parsed by stating the following facts:

Its class.
Its Tense.
Its Voice.
Its Use, or Construction.

Parse some of the verbs, infinitives, and participles in any paragraph from a newspaper, magazine, or book.

CHAPTER VIII

ADVERBS

We have seen that an adverb is a word limiting or modifying a verb or an adjective or a modifier of a verb or an adjective.

Now, according to their *meaning* adverbs may be classified as follows:

Adverbs of time: "He went *then.*"

Adverbs of place: "He goes *there.*"

Adverbs of manner: "He goes *quickly.*"

Adverbs of degree: "He goes *very* quickly." "He goes *little.*"

Adverbs of cause: "He asked *why* I go "

Adverbs of assertion; such as "no," "yes," "perhaps."

According to their *use* adverbs may be classified as follows:

Limiting Adverbs, which are used simply to modify or limit: "He goes *slowly.* He is *very* slow."

Conjunctive Adverbs, which not only limit or modify, but join clauses to other parts of the sentence: "He goes *where* I do." "He goes *when* I come."

According to *form* adverbs may be classified as follows:

Simple Adverbs, which add no endings to show that they are adverbs: "He comes *here.*" "He is *so* slow."

Flexional Adverbs, which add an ending to show that they are adverbs: "He goes *slowly.*"

Phrasal Adverbs, which are composed of more than one word: "He goes *at once.*" "He has gone *at last.*" "We go *two by two.*"

The only difficulty in the use of all these forms is to induce English-speaking people to add "ly" to make the adverb ending. The tendency is to ignore the adverb endings and use simply the adjective form; as, "He goes *slow,*" instead of "He goes *slowly.*" Though this is in line with the unceasing effort of the language to simplify itself, this omission of the adverb ending is not yet considered correct. Therefore, we should say, "I am *surely* going," not "I am *sure* going." "He learns it *easily,*" not "He learns it *easy.*"

A common tendency is the using of an adjective instead of an adverb to modify a verb. Thus, we hear, "He plays *good,*" when the expression should be, "He plays *well.*" Again, some people who do not thoroughly know their language try to cover their ignorance by using an adverb when they should use an adjective. Thus we hear, "That looks *nicely,*" "She looks *beautifully* in her new dress," "How *nicely* that flower smells."

Always consider whether the modifying word belongs with a *noun* or with a *verb*. If with the noun, use the *adjective* form; if with the verb, use the *adverb* form.

In the following sentences state which form you consider correct. If both forms may be used, state the difference between the meanings:

He could scarce (scarcely) run. Write slow (slowly). I can learn easiest (most easily) with that teacher. You ought to value this opportunity higher (more highly). The window closes easy (easily). He stood firm (firmly) in spite of his enemies. He felt awkward (awkwardly) before the girl. He acted awkward (awkwardly) before her. The potatoes are boiling soft (softly). The new bell boy appeared prompt (promptly). That looks good (well).

Remember to place the adverb as near the word it modifies as possible. Following this rule will often save your language from being ambiguous. Again, remember not to use double negatives, as, "I *can't* do *nothing*." "I *don't* know *nothing* about it." In some languages, such as French, the use of double negatives is considered correct, but custom has made it positively incorrect in English.

Most adverbs, like adjectives, can indicate more or less in their modifying or limiting, and they, therefore, have *comparison*. Adverbs of *one* syllable generally make the comparative and super-

lative degrees by adding "er" and "est." Most adverbs of *more than one* syllable and all adverbs ending in "ly" make the comparative and superlative by placing before themselves "more" and "most." In this connection remember that when but *two* things or actions are being compared, do not use the superlative but the *comparative* degree. Thus, we may say, "Which is the *farther* (not *farthest*) west, Seattle or San Francisco?" "Which can go *faster* (not *fastest*), a horse or an automobile?"

In the parsing of adverbs we state the following facts:

Its class, according to meaning, use, and form.

How it is compared.

Its use or construction.

In any newspaper, magazine, or book, pick out some of the adverbs and parse them.

CHAPTER IX

PREPOSITIONS

We have seen that a preposition is a word placed before a noun or a pronoun or a group of words acting like a noun, to show the relation of that noun or pronoun or group of words to some other part of the sentence. Thus, in the sentence, "He jumped *upon* the *board,*" "upon" is a preposition showing the relation between the verb "jump" and the object "board." Again, in the sentence, "I did not listen *to what he was saying,*" the preposition "to" shows the relation between the verb "listen" and the group of words, "what he was saying." Now, the noun or pronoun or group of words following the preposition is known as the **Object of a Preposition,** and, of course, such a noun or pronoun is in the *objective* case. The phrase formed by a preposition and its object is naturally called a **Prepositional Phrase,** and this phrase may act as a noun or an adjective or an adverb. Thus, in the sentence, "*Over the fence* is out," the phrase is the subject and is therefore acting as a noun might act. In the sentence, "The house *by the river* is old," the phrase modifies the noun "house,"

and is acting as an adjective might act. In the sentence, "I went *to her,*" the phrase modifies the verb "went," and therefore is acting as an adverb might act.

Sometimes the object of a preposition leaves its place after the preposition and is found in some other part of a sentence: "*Whom* are you looking *at?*" But in such a sentence it may be brought back to its original place ("You are looking at whom?") If, however, there is no such object present, and you cannot suppose one to be, then what you may have considered a preposition is really an *adverb.* Thus in the sentence, "He went *on* the walk," we have a preposition; but in the sentence, "He went *on,*" the word "on" is merely an adverb modifying "went." Similarly, in such expressions as "He stayed *off,*" "She carried *off* the honors," "He went *by* just now," we find adverbs.

Persons who wish to be extremely accurate in their use of English make a distinction between such words as "on" and "upon," and "in" and "into." "Upon" and "into" indicate a complete change of position from one base of action to another base of action. Thus: "He jumped *into* the river," "He jumped *upon* the board" *(from some other place).* "On" and "in" simply denote action within the same boundaries or at the same base of action. "He swam *in* the river," "He walked *on* the board."

A few prepositions are often used incorrectly. The word "at" should be used when a place is viewed merely as a *point,* and not as an area within which action goes on. In the latter instance, the preposition "in" should be used. Thus, we say, "He arrived *at* Chicago," "He was born *at* Portsmouth," "He remained *in* the city five days," "He stayed *at* the Savoy Hotel *in* New York."

We compare one thing *to* another when the things are *similar;* we compare one thing *with* another when they are *unlike.* Thus: "I compared John's ignorance *with* Will's knowledge."

The word "different" always requires "from" after it: "He is different *from* (not *to*) you."

"Wait *for*" means to "await"; "wait *on*" means to "serve," as at the table. Therefore, do not say, "Wait *on* me at the corner," but "Wait *for* me."

Formerly writers on grammar insisted that no sentence should end with a preposition; but an examination of the works of the best writers of the last four hundred years shows that there is no basis for this objection. Thus, Shakespeare writes:

> "Rather bear those ills we have
> Than fly to others that we know not *of.*"

CHAPTER X

CONJUNCTIONS

We have seen that a conjunction is a word used simply to connect words, phrases, and clauses. The most common ones are "and," "but," "or," "as," "though," "that," and "than."

Sometimes conjunctions join elements of equal value, and then are called **Coordinate Conjunctions**; as: "Survive *or* perish," "I saw him *and* knew him." "I hurried, *but* missed the train." Sometimes conjunctions join clauses of unequal value or importance, and then are called **Subordinate Conjunctions**; as: "We shall stay *unless* he objects." "I am here *because* I want to be."

There are certain combinations of conjunctions that are never separated; as, "either—or," "neither—nor," "both—and," "whether—or," "not only—but also." Such conjunctions used in pairs are known as **Correlative Conjunctions.** Be sure to use the same part of speech after each member of such pairs. Thus, do not say, "He not only called John, but also Harry," for here you have followed the first member with a *verb* and the next member with a noun. Say rather, "He called not only John, but also Harry."

Sometimes two or three words are used together as a conjunction. Such a conjunction is known as a **Phrasal Conjunction.** Among the phrasal conjunctions are "as if," "as though," "as sure as," "in case that," "in order that," "provided that."

TOPICAL INDEX

INDEX

A

Abstract Noun 54
Active Voice 128
Adjective 33, 98, 145
Adjective, Comparison of.... 100
Adjective, Definition of..... 21
Adjective Clause 42
Adjective Phrase 40
Adverb 33, 144, 149
Adverb, Comparison of..... 146
Adverb, Definition of..... 24
Adverb, Parsing of 147
Adverb, Position of 146
Adverbial Clause 43
Adverbial Phrase 40
Analysis 48
Antecedent 86
Apostrophe, Use of..... 66
Apposition, Definition of.... 46
Appositive, Definition of..... 46
Article 21, 33, 104
Article, Definite 106
Article, Indefinite 106
Article, Parsing of 106
Attribute Complement 38, 129
Attribute Complement, Definition of 35
Auxiliary Verb 115

C

"Can," Use of 137
Case 64
Case, Definition of.....65, 66
Case, Nominative 66
Case, Objective..... 66
Case of Pronoun, Use of.... 80
Case, Possessive..... 60
Clause 87
Clause According to Use.... 41
Clause, Adjective 42
Clause, Adverbial 43
Clause as Adjective..... 10?
Clause as Attribute Complement 42
Clause as Direct Object..... 42
Clause as Objective Complement 42
Clause, Definition of 16
Clause, Dependent 16
Clause, Descriptive Relative.. 87
Clause, Independent 16
Clause, Kinds of..... 38
Clause, Main 16
Clause, Noun 42
Clause, Progressive Relative.. 87
Clause, Restrictive Relative.. 87
Clause, Subordinate 16
Clause, Substantive 42
Collective Noun, Definition of. 53
Common Noun 53
Comparative Degree 100
Comparative, Use of.... .. 102
Comparison, Irregular 101
Comparison of Adjective..... 100
Comparison of Adverb..... 146
Comparison, Phrasal 101
Complement 33, 34
Complement, Definition of... 34
Complete Predication Verb... 34
Complex Sentence, Definition of 31
Composition of Sentence..... 27
Composition of Word..... 51
Compound Personal Pronoun. 85
Compound Predicate 30
Compound Relative Pronoun.. 86
Compound Sentence, Definition of 30
Compound Subject 30
Compound Word 51
Conjugation 139
Conjunction, Definition of.... 25
Conjunction, Coordinate 151

Conjunction, Correlative 151
Conjunction, Phrasal 152
Conjunction, Subordinate 151
Conjunctive Adverb 144
Construction of Noun..... 69
Coordinate Conjunction 151
Correct Usage 50
Correlative Conjunction 151

D

Dangling Participle 71
Declarative Sentence 27
Declension of Noun..... 68
Definite Article 106
Degree, Comparative 100
Degree, Positive 100
Degree, Superlative 100
Demonstrative Pronoun, Definition of 95
Dependent Clause, Definition of 16
Derivation 51
Descriptive Adjective 98
Descriptive Relative Clause.. 87
Direct Object 40
Direct Object, Definition of.. 36
Direct Question 29, 94
Double Negative 146
Double Possessive 68

E

Elliptical Sentence, Definition of 32
Exclamatory Sentence 27
Expletive, Definition of..... 15

F

Feminine Gender 55
Feminine Gender, Ways of Denoting 57
Flexional Adverb 145
Future Perfect Progressive Tense 125
Future Perfect Tense..... 124
Future Progressive Tense.... 125
Future Tense 123

G

Gender, Definition of..... 55
Gender, Feminine 55
Gender, Masculine 55
Gender, Neuter 55, 58
Gender of Pronoun..... 83
Grammar, Definition of..... 9

H

Hyphen, Use of..... 51

I

Imperative Mood 131
Imperative Sentence 27
Impersonal Subject 14
Incomplete Predication Verb. 34
Indefinite Article 106
Indefinite Pronoun, Definition of 95
Indefinite Pronoun, Number of 96
Independent Clause 16
Independent Element, Definition of 44
Indicative Mood 131
Indirect Object, Definition of 36, 37
Indirect Question 29, 94
Infinitive 134
Infinitive, Definition of..... 22
Infinitive in "ing"..... 134
Infinitive, Perfect 136
Infinitive, Present 136
Infinitive Phrase 39
Infinitive, Root 134
Infinitive, Split 137
Infinitive, Subject of..... 80
Infinitive, Uses of..... 135
Inflection, Definition of..... 51
Inflected Language..... 10
Interjection, Definition of.... 26
Interrogative Pronoun, Definition of..... 93
Interrogative Sentence 27
Intransitive Verb, Definition of 107
Irregular Comparison..... 101

K

Kinds of Sentence, according to Form..... 29
Kinds of Sentence, according to Meaning..... 27

L

Language, Inflected..... 10
Language, Non-Inflected..... 10
Language, Synthetic 10
"Lay," Use of..... 108
"Lie," Use of..... 108
Limiting Adjective..... 98
Limiting Adverb..... 144

M

Main Clause..... 16
Masculine Gender..... 55
"May," Use of..... 137
Mixed Verb..... 112
Mode (Mood), Definition of.. 130
Modifier 33, 34
Mood (Mode), Definition of.. 130
Mood, Imperative..... 131
Mood, Indicative..... 131
Mood, Subjunctive.....131, 137

N

Negative, Double..... 146
Neuter Gender.....55, 58
Nominative Absolute.....70, 71
Nominative Case..... 66
Non-Inflected Language..... 10
Notional Verb 116
Noun 50
Noun, Abstract, Definition of. 55
Noun as Subject of Infinitive. 70
Noun Clause..... 42
Noun, Collective, Definition of 53
Noun, Common..... 53
Noun, Construction of..... 69
Noun, Definition of..... 20
Noun, Kinds of..... 53
Noun Phrase..... 40
Noun, Proper..... 53
Noun, Substitutes for..... 52
Number, Definition of..... 58
Number in Noun..... 58
Number in Pronoun..... 84
Number in Verb..... 116

O

Object Complement.....40, 41
Object Complement, Definition of 36
Objective Case..... 66
Objective Complement, Definition of..... 36
Object of Preposition..... 147
Object of Preposition, Definition of..... 37

P

Parenthetical Element, Definition of..... 45
Parsing 73
Parsing of Adverb..... 147
Parsing of Article..... 106
Parsing of Pronoun..... 96
Parsing of Verb..... 139
Participle 134
Participle, Definition of..... 23
Participle, Dangling..... 71
Participle, Past.....112, 138
Participle Phrase..... 39
Participle, Present.....112, 138
Participle, Uses of..... 138
Part of Speech, Definition of 20
Passive Voice..... 128
Past Participle.....112, 138
Past Perfect Progressive Tense 125
Past Perfect Tense..... 124
Past Progressive Tense..... 125
Past Tense..... 123
Perfect Infinitive..... 136
Personal Pronoun, Definition of 75
Person, Definition of..... 68
Personification 84
Personification, Definition of. 56
Person in Verb..... 116
Phrasal Adverb..... 145
Phrasal Comparison..... 101
Phrasal Conjunction 152
Phrasal Tense..... 123
Phrase according to Form... 38
Phrase according to Use.... 39
Phrase, Adjective.....40, 103
Phrase, Adverbial..... 40
Phrase as Direct Object..... 40
Phrase as Objective Complement 41
Phrase, Definition of..... 13
Phrase, Infinitive..... 39
Phrase, Kinds of..... 38

Phrase, Noun..... 40
Phrase, Participle..... 39
Phrase, Prepositional 37, 147
Phrase, Substantive..... 40
Phrase, Verb..... 38
Pleonasm, Definition of..... 46
Plural, Rules for.....59, 64
Positive Degree..... 100
Possessive Case..... 66
Possessive, Construction of... 66
Possessive of Pronoun..... 78
Predicate Complement, Definition of..... 35
Predicate, Definition of..... 14
Preposition 147
Prepositional Phrase.....37, 147
Preposition, Correct Use of 149, 150
Preposition, Definition of.... 24
Preposition, Object of 147
Preposition, Position of 149, 150
Present Infinitive..... 136
Present Participle.....112, 138
Present Perfect Progressive Tense 125
Present Perfect Tense..... 124
Present Progressive Tense... 124
Present Tense..... 123
Principal Parts..... 113
Progressive Relative Clause.. 87
Progressive Tense.....124, 129
Pronoun 57
Pronoun, Definition of..... 21
Pronoun, Parsing of..... 96
Pronoun, Personal..... 75
Pronoun, Reflexive..... 85
Pronoun, Relative..... 86
Proper Noun..... 53
Punctuation 17, 18 28, 29, 30, 44, 45, 46, 47, 87

R

"Raise," Use of..... 108
Reflexive Pronoun..... 85
Relative Clause..... 86
Relative Pronoun, Definition of 86
Restrictive Relative Clause... 87
"Rise," Use of..... 108
Root Infinitive..... 134
Root Word..... 51

S

Sentence, Definition of..... 13
"Set," Use of..... 108
"Shall," Use of..... 126
Simple Adverb..... 145
Simple Sentence, Definition of 30
Simple Subject..... 14
Simple Tense..... 123
"Sit," Use of..... 108
Split Infinitive..... 137
Strong Verb, Definition of... 111
Subject, Definition of..... 14
Subject, Impersonal..... 14
Subjective Complement..... 120
Subject of Infinitive..... 80
Subject, Simple..... 14
Subjunctive Mood..... 137
Subjunctive Mood, Use of... 131
Subordinate Clause, Definition of 16
Subordinate Conjunction..... 151
Substantive Clause..... 42
Substantive Phrase..... 40
Substitute for Noun..... 52
Superlative Degree..... 100
Superlative, Use of..... 102
Synthetic Language..... 10

T

Tense, Definition of..... 122
Tense, Future Perfect..... 124
Tense, Future Perfect Progressive 125
Tense, Future Progressive... 125
Tense, Past Perfect..... 124
Tense, Past Perfect Progressive 125
Tense, Past Progressive..... 125
Tense, Phrasal..... 123
Tense, Present Perfect..... 124
Tense, Present Perfect Progressive 125
Tense, Present Progressive.. 124
Tense, Progressive.....124, 129

U

Usage, Correct..... 80
Use of Comparative..... 102
Use of Noun..... 69
Use of Relative Pronoun.... 88
Use of Superlative..... 102

V

Verb 107
Verbals 23
Verb, Auxiliary..... 115
Verb, Conjugation of..... 139
Verb, Definition of..... 22
Verb, Intransitive, Definition of 107
Verb, Kinds according to Form 111
Verb, Kinds according to Meaning 107
Verb, Kinds according to Use 115
Verb, Mixed..... 112
Verb, Notional..... 116
Verb, Number in..... 116
Verb of Complete Predication 34
Verb of Incomplete Predication 34
Verb, Parsing of.....139, 143
Verb, Person in..... 116
Verb Phrase..... 38
Verb, Strong, Definition of.. 111
Verb, Tense of..... 122
Verb, Transitive, Definition of 108
Verb, Voice in..... 128
Verb, Weak, Definition of... 112
Vocative 44
Voice, Active..... 128
Voice, Definition of..... 128
Voice, Passive..... 128

W

Weak Verb, Definition of... 112
"Will," Use of..... 126